

LEND A HAND.

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CITIZENSHIP.

A GOOD citizen is one who does not live merely to make money or to enjoy himself, but bears in his mind the welfare of the community. When such a man dies, and, indeed, after he is dead, people remember gratefully what he has done. They point to an improvement in the town, or to some renewal of its life, or some suggestion made for its trade, as due to him, and they say, "This man was a good citizen."

When, however, such a society is spoken of as the Massachusetts Society for the Promotion of Good Citizenship, people's minds seem to turn at once to the business of election days. Nine people out of ten will speak of it as if the chief business of a good citizen were to vote for Harrison, or for Cleveland, according as his particular convictions may suggest the one name or the other. The old notion—what a pity we cannot say the "antiquated notion!"—still holds, that the nominal head of the state controls the state, that his opinions are the opinions of the state, and that with his success or failure the state succeeds or fails.

We are eager, in this journal, and in every publication of the Massachusetts Society, to show that the idea of citizenship is something much larger and broader. We could wish that all our excellent friends among the women of the country

could understand that, however important the ballot may be, or the right of suffrage which confers it, the other duties of a good citizen are ninety-nine times as pressing and as important as the duty which he exercises on the day of election. In the papers which have been read before the Massachusetts Society in the Old South Meeting-House, of which an abstract is given in another part of this number, there will be found numerous illustrations of this truth. And the American reader may be surprised to see that, in the administration of cities in Europe, this truth has been carried out in practice, in some directions where we here have neglected it.

It would be fair to say that the ideal government is that shown in a thinly settled town, which maintains the purity of New England institutions, in which the several voters divide among themselves all the offices of the town. We have readers in New England who have seen this in practice. There are perhaps but eight voters in the township; three of them are selectmen, three of them are the school committee, three of them are the overseers of the poor, three of them are inspectors of highways, one of them is the master of the pound, one of them is the town treasurer, and so on and so on. The parts have to be doubled, as the theatrical people say when the same actor has to appear as Hamlet's father and as the reigning king of Denmark. Every one of the eight is in responsible duty to the town, and, at the annual town meeting, every voter knows that he also must do his part in the public service. Our readers will notice with interest, in Mr. Baxter's account of the city of Berlin, that the readiness of good citizens to serve is largely called upon there in many of the details of administration. Thus, the inspection of the schools, which is left by us to twenty-four members of the school committee, five supervisors, and one superintendent, is divided in Berlin among more than a thousand of the people. This does not mean that any one of those persons exercises a great deal of power; but it does mean that the whole matter is largely ventilated, and that there are a great many people

who have a certain official privilege which the most martinet schoolmaster does not dare disregard. It means that the methods of the public school administration come largely into the discussion of private circles, and it means that if there is a fault anywhere, one or two thousand people are asking themselves whether they are perhaps responsible for this fault. In general, it means that the people of that city are taught that they cannot have anything without paying for it somehow, and they are also taught that this payment is not to be simply in the money forced out of them by taxation, but that they must give from their own life, from their own good sense, from their own information, and from their own sensibilities, their share of the life which is to show itself in the administration of the schools.

Now there are a thousand ways in which good citizenship may be promoted, in which good citizens may help to make other good citizens. The Massachusetts Society has been formed with the idea that a central bureau of men and women interested in those methods will be of assistance in all parts of the commonwealth. It is interesting to observe that it is likely to be of use in all parts of the nation. For the correspondence of the society, thus far, has been quite as large with the more remote parts of America as it has been with the towns and cities of Massachusetts. A great deal will be gained by the introduction, more and more frequent now, into the schools of studies relating to administration and politics. But this is by no means all. The conversation at a grange, at a lodge, at a camp-fire, or at a social meeting of whatever kind, which tends to the levelling-up of the people, and in general to the improvement of the town or of the state, is conversation which helps in the promotion of good citizenship. And the Society is glad to be in communication with every organization which is willing to lend itself, either in its hours of amusement or of work, to improving the general thought and feeling in such matters.

NATURAL MONOPOLIES AND LOCAL TAXATION.

BY RICHARD T. ELY.

[This important paper is based upon the address made by Professor Ely at the recent meeting of the Boston Merchants' Association.]

THE general subject for consideration this evening has been announced as "Combinations and Competition," and a large subject it is. The subject itself savors of monopoly, for it is often said of a monopolist, "He wants the earth." I think that is what the Boston Merchants' Association wants! Surely, industrially speaking, "combinations and competition" include the whole earth, and after we have finished this evening no economic or social topic will be left for discussion at a banquet to be held elsewhere or at any public banquet to be held in Boston! Such remorseless monopolists are we! We have, so far as political economy is concerned, grasped the entire earth, perhaps the entire universe! Speaking seriously, the topic assigned to me, "Natural Monopolies and Local Taxation," although only one aspect of our subject, is so large that I must necessarily leave much unsaid which is essential to a full comprehension of the position I take on these matters, and I wish you would regard my address rather as suggestive than exhaustive. I give you an outline sketch, and I beg you to trust that if filled in it would be satisfactorily done. I shall try to speak plainly, and so as to have no reasonable ground for misunderstanding, except for those malignant natures who want to misunderstand, and I am very sure that none such are present this evening.

One word more by way of introduction. I say I shall speak plainly. There may be those here who would lose by reform in municipal life. Every reform hurts large numbers, and among them many good people. But what are we to do? To stand still and do nothing is impossible. As a political economist it is my duty to find out what will benefit the people as a whole—to "hew to the line, let the chips fall where they may."

I notice everybody seems willing to discuss fairly every abuse except that particular one on which he fattens at the expense of the public. Thus the president of an electric lighting company does not want to hear municipal public works discussed, but is quite willing to listen to disquisitions on the iniquity of protective tariffs. I have a concrete instance in mind. The protected manufacturer is willing to be shown that public electric lights and gas works are better than private enterprise, but would rather not hear too much about free trade. Now the truth is that the only way to do is in every instance to look aside from private interests and to endeavor to ascertain what is for the public good, assured that in this way we shall all, in the long run, fare best. This is what I seek to do, and I try not to spare myself. In fact, as tax commissioner of Maryland, I have made recommendations in regard to taxation in Baltimore and Maryland which would treble my own taxes. I say frankly I am one of those not paying their fair share of taxes. So electric lights and gas works must be considered from the standpoint of public welfare. We have no right to tax the many for the sake of the few.

I appear before you as an advocate of monopoly in certain quarters of the industrial field; as one then who rejoices in the progress which in these quarters monopoly is making, and as one who would gladly see this progress accelerated. But I oppose private monopolies. What I favor is the management of certain monopolies by public authorities and in the interests of the public.

Monopolies are the field for public activity. Competitive pursuits are the field for private activity.

It is thus that I draw the line, and it is, as I hold, clearly and sharply drawn. It is curious to notice the rapid springs which some economists are making in these days of combinations. Some of them, indeed, are performing somersaults in a manner worthy of professional acrobats. Among economists I find myself surrounded by socialists, and the most thorough-

going socialists were but yesterday extreme individualists, who told us that the free play of natural forces as seen in universal competition was beneficent. The length to which people went in favor of competition at all times and in all places is illustrated by the attitude of some members of the Municipal Council of Augusta, Ga., a few years ago. The question arose whether a charter should be granted a new gas company, and when it was urged that it would bring about no reduction in prices and accomplish no useful purpose they still wanted to give the charter, simply for the ardor with which they loved the principle of competition. Fortunately, however, they were convinced that attempted competition would do positive harm, and wiser counsels prevailed. I say I find myself surrounded by socialists when I am among economists. By that I mean I find myself among those who approve of all combinations and trusts, and it is, of course, only necessary for combinations to go forward to bring us to pure socialism. Every socialist knows this and rejoices in trusts. Take up Laurence Gronlund's "Danton in the French Revolution," and you will find this idea closely brought out. Take up the last number of the *New Haven Workmen's Advocate* and you will find combinations spoken of as an encouraging sign of the times. These are words from an editorial: "Centralization (i. e. in business) is more and more recognized as necessary for order and economy. Progress in this." One of the ablest political economists in the country told me a few days since that in conversation with a socialist, this socialist said: "Every time I hear of a new trust I feel like throwing up my hat and shouting hurrah!" And the political economist added: If I were a socialist I would say to our industrial leaders, "Keep right on, gentlemen. You are realizing for me my dreams. It is now only necessary for me to fold my hands." Socialism means a universal trust. Centralize all business in a trust and then it is only necessary to put a representative of the people in control to have socialism, pure and simple. Now all this I oppose, therefore I see myself

becoming in public opinion, so far as public opinion deigns to take any notice of me, more conservative with every day, although I have not changed. A few years ago I was regarded as a radical—of course I always claimed that I was a conservative—but I fear that if this change in my fellow-economists continues in a few years more I shall be called an old foggy!

There can be no doubt, gentlemen, that people have been staggered by the industrial phenomena of the past few years, and many do not know what to think about the fundamental principles of our social order. This was illustrated in a manner both amusing and—I think I may say—pathetic, in Baltimore a couple of years since. It was a great blow to our people to see the Baltimore and Ohio Telegraph swallowed up by the Western Union. Its officers had been protesting vigorously year in and year out, in season and out of season, that such a thing would never happen. But the Baltimoreans had scarcely recovered from that shock when they received another blow in the consolidation of the gas companies, which likewise had assured us that they never would do that wicked thing! Assured us most solemnly. And among those who gave us these assurances were solid business men and most respectable church members. There are two causes for the confusion of thought and perplexity of the public mind.

1. Most people have looked upon the form of society which we see all about us as something natural and unchangeable. Now the truth is that our social and industrial order is but of yesterday, and those things most familiar to us were entirely unknown to our forefathers a hundred years ago. I could give hundreds of illustrations. Free labor over our entire country, the free sale and purchase of land—that did not exist everywhere, even in Massachusetts, two hundred years ago, and in many other parts of the world it is not a century old—the banking business—one hundred years ago there were but three in the country—free competition as a fundamental principle—all these are new. So also tele-

graphs, telephones, railroads, street car lines, great manufacturing corporations, etc., etc. A stationary condition of society is something the world has never seen. The law is either progress or decline—never a stationary condition. We made a mistake in supposing our present industrial forms final.

2. We have failed to discriminate between different kinds of industries. It has been recognized that competition is in many places a good thing and has accomplished marvels. The conclusion is drawn that it must everywhere and at all times be a good thing. But this is a great mistake. It is not everywhere possible, and an attempt to apply it in quarters where it is not possible results only in disaster. We observe these phenomena: *While competition is increasing in intensity in some parts of the economic field it is decreasing steadily in others, and as the pressure of competition steadily increases, an ever increasing number withdraw themselves from its influence.*

Competition is a good thing where it is possible, but there are certain pursuits which are monopolies in their own nature. They are liable to injury by industrial war, but they are not controlled by competition. Let me explain what I mean. Industrial war is one thing, industrial competition is another. Industrial war is a fierce assault of one enterprise on another. Industrial competition is a steady pressure, compelling those under its influence to render valuable service for valuable returns. Industrial war seeks to destroy an enemy and always has in view a cessation of hostilities on some terms. Consequently for a time services are rendered at a loss. Struggles between natural monopolies are warlike.

The time is too short to allow me to describe natural monopolies and to show why certain pursuits must be monopolies. That I have done elsewhere.* I will simply enumerate the more important natural monopolies—gas supply, water supply and electric lighting, street railroads of all kinds, steam railroads, telegraphs, telephones, all public roads, the express business.

* In my book "Problems of Today."

These businesses never can be conducted except as monopolies, and any phenomena which appear like competition are temporary and illusory. The gas business serves well as an illustration. I suppose competition has been tried over a thousand times, and it never has yet been permanent, and it can be demonstrated, almost mathematically, that it never can be permanent. It is easy to explain a thing after it happened, but it is the test of the correctness of a scientific theory to predict that a thing will happen. Now, during the gas war in Baltimore, while we were receiving gas for fifty cents a thousand, I told my classes repeatedly that it could not last many years, and that all the agreements of the companies not to consolidate, of whatever nature they might be, were not worth the paper on which they were written. In the same way, on strictly scientific principles, when nobody in Baltimore believed it, I predicted the consolidation of the Baltimore and Ohio Telegraph and the Western Union, and even ventured to print my prediction. I was willing to stake my reputation as a political economist on its accuracy. Well, you all know what happened.

So now I am ready to predict that in most places we shall witness a consolidation of private electric lighting and gas companies in a few years. Indeed, this has already begun. Certain monopolies are local in their nature: e. g. street cars, electric lights, gas supply, water supply, and for these I favor the principle of municipal self-help, as opposed to the perpetual interference with private corporations which render these services. There are two principles, one of which must be violated in these matters. One is the "keep-out" principle—the other is the "let-alone" principle. The keep-out principle means that government should not perform industrial functions. The let-alone principle means that government should let private parties manage their own business in their own way. Now I believe in this let-alone principle. Its violation brings about an intermingling of private and public interests which is most demoralizing, and which is today the

chief cause of corruption in public life. The keep-out principle can be violated with greater safety. I say then that cities should pursue a policy looking to the ultimate ownership and management of all local monopolies. In other words, for these pursuits I favor the principle of co-operation, for that is what governmental industrial enterprises mean. The people act together and accomplish certain results. Let us call this form of activity co-operative self-help. Of course you all know that all government enterprise is frequently condemned as paternalism, but those who designate it thus have failed to grasp the fundamental idea of modern democracy and have never become true Americans. We see lingering on in the minds of these timid people European traditions. When the Czar of Russia is graciously pleased to construct a railroad for his people, you may call that beneficent paternalism, but when the people of an American town meet together and resolve that rather than be dependent on a private corporation for light, they will, in their organic capacity, construct their own electric lighting or gas works, this is a noble form of co-operative self-help. The arguments on the subject of natural monopolies bring this out clearly. Those who favor private undertakings do so because they accuse the people of incompetence. I have in mind the introduction of water works in a certain village where the enterprise was most successfully inaugurated, and where it has been admirably managed ever since by the village authorities. It was opposed by some citizens on the ground that the people collectively were too dishonest and inefficient in managing their own affairs. The arguments, when analyzed, all insulted the character of the citizens of this village. Now that the water works have been introduced by the village for a good deal less than any private corporation would have charged, and now that the annual charges for use of water are only about forty per cent. as much as private corporations usually charge under similar circumstances, I call this a triumph of the principle of municipal self-help.

HOW THIS IS CONNECTED WITH TAXATION.

This is most intimately connected with local taxation. One of two methods may be pursued. 1, These monopolies may be worked for a profit, and by profits taxes may be reduced; or, 2, charges may be reduced, and increased general prosperity will furnish a more plentiful source of taxes and thus allow a reduction of the tax rate. Enormous waste is thereby obviated. Baltimore again furnishes an illustration with which I must content myself, although I could give a thousand. I suppose we have had six or seven attempts at competition in gas supply. Our streets are full of gas mains. Now, all these different plants and outlays must be paid for, and every time a consolidation takes place fixed charges and capital stock have both been increased. The result is that it does not now appear to be a very profitable business to supply gas at \$1.25 a thousand, the rate fixed by the legislature, although it can be made and sold at a profit for 37 cents. I say it can be done, because it is done in the city of Philadelphia, parties supplying the city with gas at that figure.*

IT WORKS WELL IN EXPERIENCE.

Some of you may whisper to yourselves "theory." But I do not confine myself to theory. Natural monopolies owned and controlled by cities always work well, and you may search the world over for an exception. This is one of the few rules without exception. You may mention Philadelphia's gas works to me as a proof to the contrary, but Philadelphia I regard as a proof of the excellence of the practice I commend. Where municipal gas works have been worse managed than anywhere else, the citizens have fared better than we have in Baltimore or than the citizens in New York under private works, and it is the best citizens of Philadelphia

* Philadelphia owns its own gas works, but the demand for gas increasing suddenly, the city contracted with private parties to furnish a certain amount of gas, delivered in the city receivers, for 37 cents a thousand.

who insisted that the gas works should remain city property when the gas trust expired a few years ago. In other words, the worst instance of municipal works has proved better than ordinary private works, and probably less demoralizing politically.

Other instances of gas works owned and operated successfully by the city are Richmond, Va., Alexandria, Va., and Wheeling, West Virginia, where the city is supplying gas at 90 cents a thousand and making profits which go to reduce taxes. The experience with electric light is still more striking. Bay City, Mich., Lewiston, Me., Madison, Ind., and Dunkirk, N. Y., are supplying electric lights of 2000 candle power, each, I believe, for about 13 cents a night, whereas cities are paying private corporations from 40 cents to 65 cents. Sixty-five cents is, I believe, your rate in Boston; just five times as much. I wrote some time since to the mayor of Dunkirk, N. Y., to find out how they were succeeding with this experiment, not that I had any doubt as to the matter, for I would as soon expect to see a stone of itself leave the earth and fly into the sky contrary to the laws of gravitation as to find a city not succeeding in supplying itself with electric lights or gas. Well, here is the letter of the mayor, accompanied with a detailed statement of cost:—

MAYOR'S OFFICE,
DUNKIRK, N. Y., Dec. 1, 1888. }

Professor R. T. Ely:

The cost of each arc light per night running all night and every night is 13 1-2 cents. Enclosed I send you detailed statement of same. The capacity of the arc light is 1000 candle power and they are fifty-five in number. This system is the Western Electric of Chicago, and we claim we are having better results than they are having at Erie or Buffalo—45 cents. We are greatly pleased with our system. Our plant complete cost \$11,025.31. This includes two Rice engines of fifty horse power each, two dynamos of thirty-five arc lights each, and all the necessary apparatus. The length of the line is about eleven miles. In order to make sufficient room for the plant in the water works building, an addition was made at an

expense of \$1630.50, making the total cost of plant and building \$13,938.71. You are aware our city owns and operates its water plant, and the great saving comes from the city's owning and operating both plants. No extra labor is required but a lineman, for whose services we pay \$45 per month. The same engineers, firemen and superintendent operate both plants, and the same boiler power is used. I saw the superintendent this morning after the receipt of your letter, and he assures me the cost per night can be reduced below 13 1-2 cents. If I can be of further service to you please write me. Very truly yours,

WILLIAM BOOKSTAUR,

Mayor.

The superintendent's report gives the detail.

Private parties cannot render the service so cheaply, as I know from a friend engaged in the business. There are many reasons why cities can render this service more cheaply into which I cannot enter at this moment. I hear it said here in Boston that a reason urged for paying the outrageous price which you do, viz.: 65 cents per arc light per night, is the large territorial extent of your city. This is not valid. If your city covers a larger area than a city like Dunkirk, N. Y., or Lewiston, Me., the number of lights increases in proportion and the cost per light ought not to be greater. On the contrary, it ought to be smaller, because a business like electric lighting is much more efficiently and cheaply managed on a large scale than on a small scale. The same men can manage a large plant as well as a small one and there is a considerable saving in salaries. But again we have experience to fall back upon. The city of Chicago, Ill., has introduced a plant and furnishes electric lights along the river front. There has been some extra expense on account of burial of wires—and, by the way, there never is any difficulty in burying electric wires owned and operated by government either here or elsewhere—but the cost per arc light of 2000 candle power is reported as about 15 cents a night, lights burning all night. The city is greatly pleased and it is proposed to extend the plant during the present year. In addi-

tion to the cities named, I have found electric lighting plants owned and operated by the following cities, viz.: Painesville and Xenia, Ohio, Champaign, Illinois, and Easton, Pa. The mayor of Easton, Hon. Charles F. Chidsey, writes me: "The light gives our people great satisfaction," and this is like the testimony of people everywhere where the city owns and operates an electric lighting plant.

This extension of the sphere of government I do not regard as something to be regretted. On the contrary, I welcome it. It will, by its variety, make our entire social life richer and fuller. I regard these proposals as the strongest bulwark against socialism. It will bring about a reformation of our political life. *The door to civil service reform is industrial reform.* We all agree that municipal public life is not what it should be, even if its badness is often exaggerated. But what are the causes?

The usual explanations fail to go below the surface. Universal suffrage is alleged to be the cause, and it is said that the poor vote away the property of the rich. The facts do not tally with the theory. I have looked into this matter with care, and I think I have had some facilities for so doing. I know of no American city which is not controlled by wealth. The truth is this: *unscrupulous wealth uses vicious poverty as a tool*; not that all wealth is unscrupulous, nor all poverty vicious. Let us see.

We have our choice between direct management of natural monopolies and delegated management with control, and the common law requires at least regulation. Now when you attempt to control a man who renders public service you create antagonism and diversity of interests. Those who supply these services attempt to escape control or to shape the regulation of their industries for private ends. Sometimes, on the other hand, unscrupulous politicians attempt to abuse the power of control and regulation, to oppress corporations so as to be bought off. An instance like this occurred in Maryland, and a politician received, I am told, \$10,000 a

year not to take a certain course. Thus in one way or another are corporations of a monopolistic nature forced into politics. This is the real source of political corruption. This is the real explanation of an unscrupulous lobby, which steals bills from Senate files and buys directly and indirectly legislators and sometimes buys judges, perhaps oftener controls their appointment. When the management of natural monopolies is direct, we have on the other hand a harmony of public and private interests, an awakened public spirit, an intensified municipal self-consciousness, if I may use the expression. A field is thus furnished for talent in the service of the city, and our colleges and universities are full of young men, eager for honorable public service. If they are given only a little encouragement they will prepare themselves thoroughly. I have noticed these effects from public works. I have noticed the disastrous effects described from private works. Compare Jamestown, N. Y., with Fredonia, N. Y., the former with private water works, the latter with public works, or Lockport, N. Y., with Dunkirk, N. Y., the former with private electric lighting works and the latter with public electric lighting works, and you will observe those phenomena which I have described. You will find in Lockport, N. Y., the rich and influential people resisting the mayor's attempt at reform because they derive a profit from things as they are; and this, I will venture to say, is the cause of indifference of many influential people to proposed political reforms. This is what I find when I study politics in the concrete. I have in mind a good friend of mine in Baltimore who is in the electric lighting business. This friend is a most excellent gentleman, a good Christian who tries to do his duty, but is it not asking too much of human nature to expect him to take an active interest in the reformation of municipal politics? If we had the right kind of a city government we certainly would not pay 50 cents a night for each electric light.

The temptations of the practice of the principles of delegated agency in electric lights, etc., are simply irresistible.

If men were angels it might work, not otherwise. Public works will always be in politics, and that is the reason why gas companies and electric lighting companies so often have politicians for presidents, and when not for presidents, for attorneys. They must understand how to manage politicians. I could give you any number of instances. The president of the electric lighting company in Baltimore is also president of the strongest political club in the city, and the president of our strongest street car company is an ex-governor. Recently when an electric motor company wanted an attorney, they employed a very shrewd politician, who is a friend of mine. The city attorney of Baltimore is also attorney for a great railroad company. It is always thus, and I have given the correct explanation. Public works will always be in politics. The only question is whether it shall be open and above board or concealed. Philadelphia furnishes a good illustration. The street cars are owned and managed by city politicians and are actively in politics. The gas works are in politics, but they are manageable because they are public. The former are unmanageable and far more dangerous.

Again, the principle of delegated agency is bad because the agent becomes more powerful than the principal. Corporations are stronger than our states and cities. There is not a city in the Union strong enough to compel the burial of electric wires or the laying of properly grooved street car rails; not a city or state in this Union strong enough to protect the citizens against crossings of railroads at grade; and in the study of taxation I have yet to find a state or city which in taxation can deal satisfactorily with this class of corporations.

I have calculated that by the application of correct principles in the treatment of natural monopolies we could have reduced taxes in Baltimore one-third, I suppose in New York two-thirds, probably in Boston at least one-half.

This would enable us to carry out many reforms which insufficient funds render impracticable at present. Your

mayor tells us that he wants \$2,000,000 more than he has. I do not doubt for a moment that this sum could be advantageously expended by Boston during the coming year. Why then squander money by the hundred thousand in gifts to electric lighting companies? Why tax the poor to swell their already enormous profits? I see that the neighboring city of Cambridge, Mass., is too poor to do things which need doing, yet it seems to be able to afford to throw money away by the thousand in making contracts with the electric lighting company, paying \$180 a year for each arc light, whereas it could supply itself for one-third that sum. It is the old story: niggardly appropriations for the public library, lavish appropriations to private corporations. That is what makes American municipal government so expensive.

I will read you an extract from a paper by a careful observer travelling in England, who has attempted to get at the secret of these good municipal governments. I refer to Dr. Albert Shaw of the *Minneapolis Tribune*. The article takes the form of an interview:

THE MONOPOLIES OF SERVICE.

"I suppose Glasgow owns its gas and water?"

"Certainly; and so ought every municipality. All the monopolies of service, such as gas, water, trams and the like, should belong to the community, and experience has shown that they can be administered with quite as much freedom from assumption as when they were left in the hands of private adventurers. The great difficulty of municipal finance hitherto has been that it has relied far too much upon rates, and a rate is always an unpopular means of raising money. If, on the other hand, the community kept the monopolies of service in its own hands it would be able in many cases ultimately to raise a magnificent revenue without laying on a rate at all."

"Then, on the whole, Mr. Shaw, you are satisfied with our municipal institutions?"

"More than satisfied—I am delighted; and I think the experience of Glasgow is full of lessons for our new communities that are springing up all over the United States."

"What lessons do you deduce from it?"

"First, simplify your administration; secondly, trust the people; thirdly, give the municipality plenty to do, so as to bring the best men to the work; fourthly, keep all the monopolies of service in the hands of the municipality, regard the supply of gas and water and the letting of the use of the streets to tramway companies as very promising sources of revenue; and lastly, use the authority and the influence of the municipality in order to secure for the poorest advantages in the shape of cheap trams, healthy and clean lodging, baths, washhouses, hospitals, reading rooms, etc., to such extent, at least, as in a given case private enterprise shows itself inadequate to do what the welfare of the community requires should be done. I say this with no ardent bias toward socialism and with due regard for the financial aspects of these questions."

But time fails me and I must stop abruptly, without showing how natural monopolies are connected with trusts. I hold that in so far as they are dangerous, trusts and combinations are largely the fruit of our system of private ownership of natural monopolies, but I cannot elaborate the idea.

What I want, in conclusion, is to separate sharply the sphere of private industry from the sphere of public industry, and I hold that in so doing I am keeping close to old Anglo-Saxon and American traditions. I contend for free and individual development, for individual initiative and responsibility accompanying beneficent collective activity; I contend for this, on the one hand, against proletarian socialists; on the other, against aristocratic socialists. I contend for old American traditions of self-help in matters of government as elsewhere, for self-direction and self-determination and against paternalism and oppression, whether proceeding from government, as in other ages, or, as in our own times, from private corporations.

[In the April number of *LEND A HAND* we shall publish the instructive address made by Hon. Seth Low on this occasion.—EDITOR.]

POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS.

BY CHARLES E. BUELL.

THE object on the part of governments in establishing such a system is to encourage economy and habits of thrift among the class having small sums to deposit ; to accommodate depositors in sections where banks do not exist, or are not frequent, or are insecure ; to force from their hiding places, and add to the circulation, many millions of dollars now worse than idle ; to give stability in place of insecure banks, swindlers, fire and flood ; to strengthen the finances of the nation by giving it first liens on the accumulated wealth of its citizens, keep at home the enormous sums sent abroad to buy foreign securities, or to pay interest on securities held by foreign creditors ; and to promote loyalty and patriotism.

Heretofore republican administrations have favored the establishment of a postal savings bank system in this country, which would enable any person to deposit small sums of money in any post-office that is classed as a money-order office, the government paying a low rate of interest—as it does on its bonds—and the depositor being able to draw out the deposited sum at any post-office. This, in brief, is the plan, but as yet no way has been found to use the large sums that would accumulate.

It should be understood that the government must be able to loan the money it would thus take in, and pay interest on, at a slightly advanced rate of interest, to pay the running expenses of the system, and the loans by the government should be, as nearly as possible, permanent loans.

In a bill before the House of Representatives—Forty-seventh Congress, first session—introduced by Mr. Lacey, from Committee on Post-offices, etc., February 21st, 1882, Report No. 473, there was shown the operation of the postal savings banks in foreign countries, particularly in Great Britain. It will be observed in this report that the British Postal Savings Bank loaned its deposits to local organizations, as churches, corporations, or on town bonds.

If the like system existed here, and loaned its money to local organizations, or states, and they in turn loaned it to individuals, for homestead purposes, secured on the home, a practical way would be opened for placing all deposits, for all time, and the greatest good would be worked out systematically.

The state or local organization being responsible for the loans, the government would be secured against loaning upon fictitious values, and the individual would be watched over, and misdirection and loss would be avoided.

The greatest need of every person is a home, and the object of a government is to work the greatest good to the whole, as would be done if its citizens have enlarged facilities for acquiring homes. Under such a system of loans as described, the home would be owned jointly by the government and by the individual, without expense to the government, no burden to tax-payers, and costing the individual but \$100 per year for interest for a home actually worth \$2500. The ownership of a home in this way is very much different from the purchase of a home with money borrowed of a building association, as the loan in this instance would be permanent, only the interest and taxes being paid by the occupant.

That loans upon homes are considered safe is assured by the fact that such loans are now sought by investors and savings banks. That joint ownership is practical is shown by joint stock corporations, by churches, and by the seventy-five communistic societies of the United States, which have a per capita wealth of \$20,000 if it were divisible.

The largest apartment houses in this country, if not in the world, have been built on the basis of joint ownership, and at the present time the money is being subscribed in New York for the erection of a building for offices, in which each occupant will own his office, and this, too, in what promises to be the finest building on Broadway.

That a government may engage in a business that involves small transactions is shown in the postal service, where the

sale of a one-cent card is virtually a contract to carry a communication for the individual anywhere within the United States.

The postal money-order system is another demonstration of the ease with which the people can, through the machinery of a government, serve their interests.

The settlement of the Cherokee Indians by the government; "The Homestead Act of 1862," by which the government gave 160 acres of the public lands to actual settlers thereon, and numerous government grants to corporations and associations, are precedents for a measure providing loans for homestead purposes.

In 1885 there was a measure before the Massachusetts Legislature providing for a loan by the state to its citizens for homestead purchases. The bill failed to pass by one vote, but the opposition was due more to defects in the wording of the bill than to the measure.

"The Ashburne Act" (now before the British Parliament), providing for a loan of £5,000,000, or \$25,000,000, to tenant farmers in Ireland, for farm purchases, is of interest in this connection.

In the past our fertile public lands acted as a safety valve for the enterprise of our people, and the exhaustion of those lands materially impairs the opportunity for independence which is essential to a free people.

In the past millions sought homes on the public lands and left their children in improved circumstances.

Although but one in a thousand may have settled on those lands, all were more contented with their lot, as they felt it to be one of choice and not compulsion.

Our wisest public men have held the conviction that an opening for the enterprise of our people is necessary to prevent a discontent which education only increases until it becomes a danger to the state.

In 1887 the Associated Charities of Boston and other cities joined with the charity organizations of New York in a

petition to Congress asking for the establishment, by government, of a postal savings bank system.

As they were disappointed in that, the charity organizations of New York have established a "Penny Fund" savings bank, receiving deposits from one cent to ten dollars. They are obliged to redeposit the money in Safe Deposit Companies that receive only large sums. The "Penny Fund" buys coal in cargo lots and sells to depositors, in small lots, at cargo prices. The secretary, Mr. Charles D. Kellogg, says of the "Penny Fund" that the greatest difficulty it has encountered is its success.

The charity organizations, the labor organizations and the Grand Army of the Republic, acting in unison, could bring about the enactment of a measure, as described.

By such a homestead system the wealth, the product of the people's labor, would be distributed among the people, and the danger that comes to a country from the accumulation of its wealth in few hands would be averted.

If facilities are afforded for our young men to acquire homes more easily the ratio of marriages will increase, and those evils that grow when "what God hath joined is kept asunder" will be lessened.

The great argument advanced by advocates of a postal savings bank system is the cultivating of the people to a care of wealth that will result.

There is no incentive to thrift like the possession of a home. The young couple that are in possession of a home are certain to be more desirous of living within their income than those boarding at hotels and boarding-houses, or the same persons not married. There can be no argument against promoting the ownership of homes by the people, if it can be done properly.

There is a prophetic forecast of a time when "Every man shall sit under his own vine and fig tree, with none to molest or make afraid." Logically this would require common ownership with individual possession, in its fulfillment,

for with individual ownership the homes, with their vines and fig trees, would, under the subtle forces termed "the laws of trade," again accumulate in few hands, and then "every man" would not sit under his own.

If only native-born citizens were eligible to acquire homes in such a system it would tend to bring about a like system in foreign countries, and with every people enjoying the good results of such an ownership, there would be no wish to jeopardize their interests by war, and "they would learn the art of war no more."

There is a strange possibility in the operation of a loaning system to the people, by the people, with its ever decreasing rate of interest, which, like the rate of postage, diminishes as the system grows.

AN acute critic has called to George Kercheval's attention the fact that witches were never burned in Massachusetts. George Kercheval had said, "Witches were burned in Massachusetts when we had reached a much higher state of civilization than the Indians in this village."

Mr. Kercheval regrets this oversight in writing. But as a slave was burned in Massachusetts, for the murder of her master, as late as the year , when it is to be hoped that the civilization of Massachusetts had somewhat advanced on what it was in 1690, the well-meant correction does not invalidate the force of Mr. Kercheval's argument. The earliest execution by fire in Massachusetts was in 1681, and was probably the only other instance that was "*lex talionis*," a punishment of an incendiary.

A MAN'S A MAN FOR A' THAT.

BY GEORGE TRUMAN KERCHEVAL.

CHAPTER IX.

THE LITTLE WHITE CROSS ON THE CLIFF.

THE people at the ranch were very good to Meetah. The women respected and were sorry for her; one of the women offered the use of her room, when they carried Meetah in, and there she was laid.

She gradually awoke to the darkness and despair of consciousness. She arose and asked to be left alone. The woman quietly withdrew. She sat by the closed window, alone in the strange room. She pressed her fingers to her tearless eyes. Nothing could shut out the past; nothing could ward off the future.

In a desperate moment she had thought to end her own life; but that would only be putting her further away from Lorin: a criminal might never go where he was.

Anything would have been easier to bear than the thought that Lorin had suffered at the hands of murderers. If he had died of some terrible disease she might have thought it one of the plans in the all-wise Providence, but she could never think such a violent death as his the result of any Supreme Will.

She arose, shuddering. What was her own grief; her own loss? They would press their claims always; but Lorin's future, Lorin's life, cut off,—Lorin's dreams ended here, and by whom? Lorin an unwilling, defenceless victim, Lorin struck down—

She rushed from the room. It was not too late, the stage had not gone. They were trying to master the cream-colored mare; they had been hours trying to harness it.

Elmer Stone stood aloof, his hands shading his eyes; Meetah glided to him.

"You will take Lorin back to the mountains he loved?

Do you remember the cliff—the place where Lorin loved to dream?—there.”

She turned away; he understood what she meant.

Elmer put out his hand. “And you? Where are you going?” His voice was husky.

“For justice; if not, then revenge. Mr. Harrold will help me. I shall go to him. I shall not believe there is a God in heaven if—”

“If what, Meetah?”

“Oh! I do not know. Do not ask me—” Her face worked painfully as she turned away.

Mr. Harrold wondered and waited for Lorin three days, and neither sight of him nor word. On the morning of the fourth day, as he sat beside his log fire, in the sitting-room, still wondering about Lorin, his door burst open, and a woman with haggard eyes and wan features stood upon the threshold.

“You did not hear my knock, and I could not wait. Oh, Mr. Harrold, help me! Lorin is dead. Killed by two white men—murdered!” Then she stood staring before her. Suddenly: “On a lonely plain I found him, dead.” Eagerly: “Have you seen him? Have you seen Lorin? Tell me, tell me, for I am Meetah Tocare.”

She put her hands to her forehead, then with a puzzled look: “This is Mr. Harrold, I believe? I am Meetah Tocare. Have I told you about Lorin?—I am very weary. I do not believe I know what I say, I—” She paused, and in a hushed voice said, “He told me of this room. Oh, you were so good, so kind to him! Be good to me. Help me—”

Mr. Harrold could not doubt the horrible truth. All that Lorin had said of Meetah came back to him. Without a word he led her to an easy chair, and, going to the cupboard, brought a glass of wine and put it to her lips. She drank it, and, leaning back her head wearily, closed her eyes. He stood a moment gazing at her. He could not overcome the chilliness creeping through his nerves.

Softly opening the hall door, he called his wife, she who,

as Miss Slater, had first directed his attention to Lorin Mooruck. He spoke to her hurriedly in the hall. She came into the room and knelt by Meeta's side, taking the long, slender hands of the Indian girl in hers. She tenderly stroked them, while the hot tears rolled down her cheeks at sight of Meeta's face.

At her touch, Meeta unclosed her eyes, looking long and earnestly at her: "Yes, Lorin spoke of you, too. You were good to him." She leaned forward and lightly touched Mrs. Harrold's cheek with the tip of her finger. "Tears! You will help me, too, then."

She turned her face to the artist. "There was a statue—you will let me see it." She arose, steadied herself by the chair, refusing assistance.

"Is it not better for you to rest—to—" Mr. Harrold paused.

"Me rest? me rest?" She shook her head slowly. "No; no more rest for me; never again."

He left her in the studio and turned silently away, but not before he saw her start, catch her breath, her hand to her heart, pause, then fling herself upon her knees, her lips to the cold marble, her arms thrown protectingly around it, while her whole form shook with convulsive sobs.

"Poor thing, poor thing! Don't you think we had better take her away?" said Mrs. Harrold, raising her tear-stained cheeks to her husband, as they heard the heart-bursting sobs.

"No," he said, taking her hands in his; "no, Madge; these are probably the first tears the poor heart has shed." His voice trembled.

She laid her head against his breast. "Our happiness seems wicked in the face of grief like that. Tell me, is it because we are white and they are Indian, is that the reason it all happened? Isn't a man a *man*, no matter about the race? Is a heart and soul of no account?"

"I do not know," he answered. "God forbid that this wrong should be laid at our door, that we should forget the soul, forget manhood, right and justice."

The manner of Lorin's death was very indistinct in the mind of Mr. Harrold and his wife, until Mr. Balch came and explained all to them.

Great anger was mixed with the artist's sorrow at loss of his friend. He swore by all holy things to help Meetah Tocare. He, too, cried, "If not justice, then revenge;" but first he would compel the law.

Mrs. Harrold proved a friend to Meetah; a sister could not have been more deferential or thoughtful to such grief. Meetah remained the Harrolds' guest for many days; looking up the law, going with Mr. Harrold to first this one and then that, endeavoring in all ways to urge the law to mete out justice to Bob McHenry and Dumfrey, of whom they had sufficient evidence that they were the murderers.

Meetah spent much time in the studio, sitting silently, her eyes on Mr. Harrold's work, or else deep in dreaminess, gazing at nothing. She loved the place because there Lorin had begun to realize his dreams.

One day as she stood beside Lorin's half-finished statue, her fingers caressingly upon the marble, she looked up at the artist, with dreamy eyes and the shadow of a smile about her lips, asking with hesitation, "Would it be possible—do you think I could ever learn to do as Lorin did? Do you think with years of perseverance and work, I could ever go on with this—his work?"

Mr. Harrold shook his head: "I am afraid not; no one but Lorin could finish that."

"It is like my life," she murmured, "half done—half in the rough. The tools are dropped; it will never be finished as was meant."

Mrs. Harrold dropped her white sewing: "Ah, Meetah, you have that within you which is immortal, that which is meant to be beautiful, never to die. The statue's master is gone, the spirit is dead. Your Master lives always, His spirit lives in you. You will go on emerging; heart-break and bitter sorrow are oftenest the tools with which His work is perfected."

Meetah's eyes flashed up at her; then the tears filled them. She came to her, pressed her hand: "Thank you, my sister. You have given me a new thought." She passed silently from the room, her head bent.

Mrs. Harrold heaved a sigh as her eyes followed the girlish form. "I do not want her to give up her young life," she said, turning to her husband, "in endless rebellion. There is much useful work for her to do in the world; she has a strong influence, a fine mind, and, what is more, a sympathetic heart. She is a help to all who know her; there are many weary ones for her to help. Who knows, that might have been her mission—to taste the bitter dregs so that she might be able to administer comfort to others."

"A very sad life, at best," the artist answered. "I think she might have helped others quite as much, if Lorin had not been brutally murdered."

At last Bob McHenry was arrested with the rifle in his hand. There could be no mistake, for the initials L. M. were wondrously carved upon the butt.

Dumfrey had fled the country, the sheriff advising him to do so, until the excitement should have died out.

The testimony of Snike, and that of the women, established Bob McHenry's and his accomplice's guilt beyond a doubt. After the testimony and the examination, six thousand dollars bail was accepted, and the murderer released.

Meetah left the court-room in feverish excitement; she was ready to return to the village now that the law was in operation; but Mr. Harrold, who lingered behind, saw the murderer, with the judge, cross the street and enter a saloon. He followed them, and was in time to hear the judge order two drinks, and, raising the glass to his lips, say, "Here's to you, Bob, hoping you'll come through the business A, No. 1. It'd be best for you to skip the country, till this Indian girl's friends cool off. The Indians'll have to get out of the way soon; they'll object, but we won't have any foolin'. We'll soon settle the red-skins!"

When Mr. Harrold bade good-by to Meetah, the next morning, he had not the courage to tell her that he believed Bob McHenry would go unpunished.

Meetah was back among her friends—those who had loved Lorin and been proud of him. They gathered about her, and she told them of his statues. She left Mr. Tuscan to tell how far the law had gone. Some of the young men threatened to shoot either Dumfrey or Bob McHenry on sight; but Mr. Tuscan exerted all the influence he possessed among them, and they promised to await the course of the law.

The children very seldom walk from the school-house with Meetah now; she asks to be left alone, and sits there at her desk for hours, her head buried in her hands.

Every day she walks to the cliff. Where she and Lorin sat of yore stands a little white cross at the head of a grave.

This evening, as she sits there in the twilight, a horseman gallops up to Mr. Tuscan's door; it is Wahsoo with a message from Mr. Harrold. His news is soon told. A new trial had been given Bob McHenry, and today he had been proven innocent.

Little does Meetah dream of the word that awaits her, when she goes home to Hannah this night. She sits thinking of Mrs. Harrold's last letter, wherein she urges her to go East and lecture; to tell the people of Lorin; to show what education has done; to picture the village and the public spirit and ambition of both men and women; to prove that "a man's a man for a' that." Suddenly Lorin's words came to her—those he spoke that Sunday when they together waited for Hannah and Joseph, the day she went to live with Mr. Tuscan; the air seems vibrant with them:—

"If you go out to make the world hear the truth, I will always be near you. My spirit shall help you."

She sits gazing at the mountains that are softened by the evening's shadow, her arm thrown over the grave. A rim of rosy light quivers in the blue above, then gives place to gray clouds growing darker and darker, until they envelop Meetah Tocare and shut her from our sight.

[*Concluded.*]

THE NEW BALLOT SYSTEM.

BY R. H. DANA.

V.

MR. DANA began by saying that his subject was one which did not lend itself to oratorical display, but which, though in great part a statement of details, really went deep down to the foundations of our institutions.

Many may have wondered why the Roman Republic came to an end. It was owing to wide-spread corruption among the people. And in our own dear land we might reach a point where the better people would welcome a dictatorship that would put an end to a debased republicanism. If this were ever to come about, it would be through the corruption of the individual voter.

It was a common remark that if voters were intelligent and upright we were sure to have good government. And if not, no system would help us. This was not so. There were three classes: the good, the corrupt, and between these a large class who would be good if helped to be so, but would become corrupt if outside influences preponderated in that direction. A system could and should be framed to assist men to practise integrity and not to facilitate corruption.

Our old laws in Massachusetts (previous to the new act) which provided that voting should be by ballot, prescribed the size and general character of the ballot, but stopped there. They left the printing and distribution of ballots to any one who chose to undertake the work.

There were close upon 700 polling places in the state, and a single set of nominations required about one and a quarter million ballots. Each of the two great parties printed about this number, at a cost of from \$2000 to \$3000, for a state election, and the other smaller parties had to provide enough for all possible exigencies. The fact that ballots bore different candidates for local offices (county and district) in different parts of the state required as many as from 160 to

200 different ballots, and still further complicated the system.

This printing and distribution required a great deal of labor, which was undertaken by the different party organizations through their committees (the "party workers"), and these were apt to be men who pursued politics as a personal aim. These men thus got control of the party machinery, and the able leaders found themselves dependent on them. The mere misspelling of a name upon a portion of the ballots might turn an election against the choice of the people. If the name at the head of a ticket was right, few voters scrutinized closely the following ones; and very unworthy persons were elected unwittingly to minor offices. Moreover, the want of secrecy rendered the voter liable to intimidation or open to attempts at bribery.

In the new system now to be in legal force, after Nov. 1st, 1889, two reforms have been inaugurated. First, the state prints all the ballots at the public cost. Second, absolute secrecy is insured. One ballot contains all the nominations to each office, and the voter indicates his selection by making a mark (cross) against the one he wishes to vote for.

Nominations are made in two ways: First, by caucus of any party that cast at least three per cent. of the vote at the previous election, or, second, by a number of individual voters equalling one per cent. of the voters of a district. The number, however, must be at least fifty, and need not in any case exceed one thousand.

Moreover, the ballot is provided with a blank space for each officer voted for, in which the individual voter can, if he wish, write the name of any person whom he prefers to the printed nominees. The order of the printed candidates is alphabetical, and the political party which nominated each is indicated.

Nominations for state elections must be handed in to the secretary of state at least fourteen days before the election; for a city election, ten days, and for other elections, seven days.

Mr. Dana expressed regret that it has of late become the custom to *elect* instead of *appointing* a large class of officers—registers of deeds and probate, county clerks, and the like, whose functions are in no wise affected by their political affiliations, and thereby increasing the complication of ballot voting unnecessarily.

The ballots, being prepared under the direction of the secretary of state and authenticated by a fac-simile imprint of his signature upon the outside (they are folded lengthwise, so that the printed nominations are not visible until unfolded), are distributed at the proper time, through city and town clerks, to the various polling places.

Besides having them open to inspection in his office, he is required to publish in each county a complete list of all the nominations, and specimen ballots are required to be posted in all polling places four days before the election. When it is remembered that the daily press will probably reprint the list, it will be seen that every voter will have ample time to select his candidate for each office.

The voter upon going to the polls enters first an outer room, where he can refresh his memory from the specimen ballot posted for that purpose, and then presents himself at an inner one where he encounters the registrar with the list of voters. His name being checked, he is admitted and a ballot handed to him. With this he retires to a stall, provided with a desk, so arranged that he cannot be overlooked, and with a pencil placed there marks his ballot. He then folds it anew and at once deposits it in the ballot box. He is forbidden, under a heavy penalty, from showing it to any one after it is marked. Ten minutes are allowed him for the task, but two or three are ample.

Mr. Dana, with the aid of one or two of the audience, gave, by means of model stalls, etc., a practical illustration of the working of the system.

He then referred to objections that had been made to it and quoted the experience gained by its adoption in Australia,

England, and Louisville, Kentucky, in refutation. The testimony in every case was highly favorable to its efficiency, and the small number of errors made in practice were probably much less than those occurring under the system which it has supplanted. He stated that he did not believe that it would operate much change in party organization or the caucus system. Neither could it be relied upon to check all corrupt practices, and it may be necessary to supplement it by a corrupt practice act, as in England.

But if fairly carried out, especially in its provision for secrecy, it will prevent the purchase of votes, for no one will pay for a vote where he has to trust the honor of the seller to cast it.

He then spoke earnestly of the need of something to check the tendency to corruption which is showing itself in the community. The remedy should be applied in time. In Rome all the severe laws against corruption were passed just too late. They enacted one measure very similar to the one which had been discussed that evening. But her people had become too completely debauched.

We might think today that we were very far from being as bad as she was. But we must take warning from her and not wait until we had arrived at a state where remedial measures were hopeless.

We stood upon a levee separating the country from a mighty river. A little water, that a child with its spade might stop, trickled over the surface. But if not stopped while small it soon ate out a channel and poured in an overwhelming, irresistible flood over the land. If we neglected to stop the small beginnings of corrupt practices, all our preventive enactments might prove to have been made too late.

CHEAP PUBLIC AMUSEMENTS.

At the monthly meeting of the Boston Conference of Charities Mr. Pickering and Miss Gardner made statements of great value, which will be read with interest in all our large cities.

Mr. Pickering said: The People's Entertainment Society have considered their work entirely apart from any question of instruction. They have considered that the field is a very large one, and that their work should be confined to amusement. Mr. Pickering gave statistics of the numbers of persons of various nationalities in Boston, and said that the foreign-born citizen had a much greater capacity for enjoyment than the nervous, comparatively joyless American. The idle hours of the populace have not been sufficiently regarded; it is there that tendencies to mischief—at least to idleness—develop most rapidly. To meet this need, nothing, or almost nothing, has been done in our city, or in most American cities. In London there are the Royal Victoria Hall and the People's Palace; but their work touches the field of this society's work in but few of its details.

When the People's Entertainment Society of Boston began their work, in the winter of 1886-87, there was found to be no public provision for popular amusement except concerts on the common, unless we are to include the use of the common and other parks, and of the public baths. At the North End there existed certain clubs, not very large, maintained by private enterprise. These, however, had specific work; they certainly demanded a club membership and an assessment. There were also some clubs managed by the people themselves or by the churches, such as the sodality, devoted to temperance, athletic clubs, very popular, but given solely to athletics, beside some social clubs. At these clubs the members met and discussed the topics of the day, occasionally playing a game of pool or dominos,—cards very seldom,—but with no organized provision for amusement or entertainment among themselves. It was to meet this lack of

general organization for popular amusement that the People's Entertainment Society was formed, its purpose being to provide, at such places as seemed to need it most, some form of simple, rational amusement. They began by securing from the city a small school-house of two rooms on North Margin Street. The first concert was given on Feb. 1, 1887, with an attendance of 68. After this, weekly concerts were given until June 2, — seventeen concerts in all, — with an average attendance of 63. These entertainments consisted of music, — a piano, violin, and cornet or clarinet, sometimes mandolin or guitar playing, sometimes singing; on one occasion the boys sang themselves. In the upper room were games provided, and a small restaurant with cakes for sale. Each five-cent ticket of admission had a coupon entitling the holder to a cup of coffee, tea, or milk.

The next season the concerts were held in Corcoran Hall, on Hanover Street. At the same time we began to give weekly concerts in Arlington Hall, at the South End; but after giving seventeen concerts it was thought best to give them up for that year. The concerts at Corcoran Hall, however, were continued with increasing attendance to the end, the last audience being 215. We had at this time a paid agent, who arranged programmes under the supervision of a committee, and in all cases we had paid performers. This we considered necessary, first, because it enabled us better to control them, and second, to give the audience the sense of proprietorship. The third season began in November last, a series of eight concerts having been already given, with an average attendance of 171. A new field has also been attempted in South Boston, with very gratifying results. The programmes have been varied from time to time by the introduction of reading, singing, playing by small orchestra, club-swinging, etc., the first object being to draw the people, the second to hold them.

As to the methods of securing attendance, advertising in the daily papers has been tried, posters, small handbills

and flyers, personal distribution of handbills and tickets, and giving tickets for sale on commission; and the only effective means has been found to be personal representation and solicitation to the people themselves in their houses.

As to the difficulties in the way, they are such as beset any such enterprise. There is at first a slight mixture of pride and prejudice, but in very small proportions. There is some unbelief in our being able to give them what we promise: a good entertainment for five cents. Poverty is seldom an obstacle; they are ready to come if they are convinced that we give them what we promise. Competition comes from several sides; from the dime museums, from the gallery of the cheap theatres, from their own clubs and church societies, more from the dance halls and the saloons. It is quite possible that the saloons, with all their vicious tendencies, furnish something in the way of attractive amusement which we have not yet reached, and which we can in some sort copy. The people there feel that they are a part of the show, and they take an active part in what is going on. Until we arrive at this point, of making them feel that it is their entertainment, that they are responsible for its continuance, that it is not an outside enterprise either for making money or for their amusement without their help, we have not found the right key to the situation. It is vitally important that every slightest instinct that may be discovered for honest amusement—decent, even—should be carefully cultivated. In most cases the germ seems to exist, and if it can be developed a very great point has been gained.

The society had during the first year a total attendance of 1079, an average of 63; in the second year, a total attendance of 2000, an average of 83; for the thirteen concerts already given this year, a total attendance of 1950, an average of 150.

The problem seems to be best attacked on what may be called the material side, without any attempt at touching what may be called the higher tendencies. Appeal first to the senses—warmth, light, good air are very important, and these

we have offered them. Any one who had five cents and would behave himself on the premises was welcome. For his five cents he received a well-warmed and lighted room, a cup of coffee and an hour and a half of amusement. As a result of this we have secured some details which have been deemed important—clean face and hands, quiet and attention, hats off where women are, a sense of being in a place where the atmosphere and surroundings require good behavior, a clean cup and a private spoon. We think that we have gone farther still, and have stimulated the innate sense and appreciation of amusement in and for itself; in some cases perhaps we have created this appreciation.

Last year an Out-door Club was started, and was managed in part by our society, with very good results, parties of boys being taken fourteen times into the country, where they enjoyed various sports.

Miss Gardner of the Shawmut Avenue Working Girls' Club was next introduced to speak on girls' clubs. She said:

No one person can tell another just how to work in these clubs. To use a medical figure, the pulse of a club must be constantly watched, and the treatment varied. Theories that act well this week will not act well next week; one thing is needed today, something entirely different tomorrow. The thing needed for a successful club is not persons with theories, but earnest men and women, willing to spend and be spent in the service of boys and girls whose homes have few attractions, and who are bound to find amusement somewhere. Co-operation is needed; unselfishness is needed; plenty of these will bring success. By co-operation is not meant a set of directors planning for this club and for that club, but co-operation of the boys and girls with us, and us with them. It is impossible to overestimate the value of a Lend a Hand Club within each of these clubs—a Lend a Hand Club that shall be strongly religious.

Miss Gardner illustrated this point by some interesting details of the work of the Shawmut Avenue Club.

HOMES FOR GENTLEWOMEN.

BY JOHN WILLIAMS.

THIS is a scheme originated in an experiment made some ten years ago by Lady Mary Fielding, president of "The Working Ladies' Guild," and Miss Louisa M. Hubbard, editor of *Work and Leisure*. Its object is to provide associated dwellings for ladies with limited incomes. In London, more particularly at the West End, there are very many single ladies and widows who are necessitated, on account of their slender incomes, to seek homes in cheap lodgings. It is too well known that in almost every case not only discomfort and annoyance, but often positive ill health, are the necessary consequences of ladies having to resort to these cheap lodging-houses, especially in large towns and cities on both sides the Atlantic. It is well known, too, that although there are numerous agencies through which these ladies, if in need of charity, might easily obtain temporary relief, they are too sensitive to avail themselves of such sources. "To beg they are ashamed." These are the sort of people who to the very last keep up a hard struggle for independence, and the only true way of assisting such is that in which this praiseworthy independence is respected, by simply adopting such means as will make it easier for them to maintain it. This scheme is not in any sense a charity; at least, in the lower sense of the word. It seeks to provide for these ladies dwellings in which they can be boarded and lodged at the lowest possible cost. Based as it is on a strict commercial footing, there is not, nor can there be, the least suspicion of obligation. The great desiderata to be aimed at in this scheme are (1) entire independence, (2) good and cheap food, (3) a room so constructed as not to necessitate the use of a second room, (4) the possibility of renting such a room, furnished or unfurnished, at a reasonable rent. Amongst what are classed as working ladies are daughters of professional men, who have to live for a few months in London in order to attend the educational and technical courses for which there are so many

facilities in London and other large towns and cities. Every one knows that to send these young, inexperienced girls to a lodging-house is simply to expose them to great moral danger, to say nothing of the exorbitant rates they are sure to be charged for indifferent lodgings and as indifferent food. In the proposed buildings it is intended to utilize the restaurant for the establishment of a small school of cookery, presided over by a lady duly qualified to impart instruction of this nature. The whole plan of this admirable scheme is put before the public as "The Ladies' Dwellings Company, Limited." Its objects are thus stated: (a) To build a house or houses, with rooms set apart for hire by ladies, such rooms being furnished or unfurnished, or to be used as music or painting rooms. (b) To establish a restaurant in each such house for the use of such ladies or others, and to establish a school of cookery at any or at all such restaurants. Lady Mary Fielding, in a paper contributed by her to *The Queen* of December 10th, 1887, shows very satisfactorily that such dwellings for ladies can be provided at rates varying between two shillings and sixpence and four shillings and sixpence per room per week, and still leave a margin for profit. She says: "In 1878 I took and adapted a block of rooms, originally intended for artisans, and but very imperfectly fitted for ladies. Having made some slight alterations, about half were let furnished and the rest unfurnished. These rooms, about fifty in number, were let in sets or singly, according to the needs of the tenants. These were of all classes, all creeds, all ages, all ranks. A squire's daughter occupied five, having her own servant. Two widows of generals each occupied a set of three or four rooms. Governesses, young students from the country, and ladies earning their livelihood in various ways occupied the rest of the building. The rents varied per room, according to position; no unfurnished room was higher than four shillings per week, and the lowest, two shillings and sixpence. Service consisted of the ordinary daily work done by a housemaid, and the simplest cooking. It con-

tinues now as then, the housekeeper sending round over night to each tenant saying what joints will be cooked the next day. Dinners, hot or cold, are sent up to the ladies' own rooms. They buy and prepare any other food they require, and give their own orders to tradesmen for coals, light, etc., exactly as at home. The experiment proved a complete success. Some of the original tenants are there still." This experiment of Lady Mary Fielding's, which has lasted over ten years, and proved eminently successful, has induced a host of well-known philanthropic people to develop the plan on a much larger scale. Each year there appears to be a greater pressure for increased accommodation for ladies of that class who are compelled to work for their living, so that the promoters of this scheme feel the necessity of at once establishing similar houses to those of Lady Mary Fielding's, but at the same time better contrived—houses built specially for the purpose in view, and on a much larger scale. Indeed, they feel that it has become one of the crying needs of the day. Lady Mary Fielding, in the paper quoted above, says that so long ago as 1884 two other blocks had been built expressly for ladies, and that lists of applicants were being continually refused for want of room. She said that so far none of these blocks were perfect, that improvements might be suggested in any or all of them, but she adds, "These facts are proved : 1. Flats are needed and in request. 2. Rents are regularly paid in advance. 3. They are self-supporting." She says she had at no time any difficulty in collecting the rents, not only because the rents were lower than ordinary lodgings, but because the privacy and quiet of the rooms were so much valued that actual privation would be endured before giving them up. She says that in these blocks of hers no pianos were allowed to disturb the inmates. But, she adds, every new block that is built should have special rooms in some part of the building containing pianos for music teachers, where they cannot disturb others. She tells us that her block of fifty-three rooms requires the services of a cook and two under-

servants. "Much depends upon getting a good cook-house-keeper. She engages her own servants, provides her kitchen coals, has her salary, inclusive of all house expenses, and has rooms besides. She herself is chosen and superintended by some external authority, to whom complaints are referred." This subject of Homes for Gentlewomen appears to me to be as important in the large cities in the United States as it is on this side the Atlantic for the very causes which Lady Mary Fielding in her admirable paper enumerates, each such cause being applicable equally to Boston, New York, Chicago and other large cities as to London: "1. The increase in the number of women obliged to earn their own livelihood. 2. The greatly increased rates in London pressing heavily on limited incomes. Many ladies are obliged to live over shops; this is often unpleasant, both from necessary noise and the annoyance of smells connected with the business. There are numerous 'homes' (so called), both furnished and unfurnished; but they all involve a certain amount of charity, if kept up by subscriptions. This involves a consequent loss of independence to ladies accepting their shelter, and will be felt especially bitter by those who have hitherto lived under such different conditions. They shrink from publicity, and wish still to choose their acquaintance, which becomes impossible when meals are taken in common. When all else that made home is gone, it is still something to have your own room for your castle, free of intruders; to eat your meals when you please, or ask your friend to share them; to open your own window when you wish it, or sit in the snuggest corner and have your own things about you, with their memories of 'Auld Lang Syne.' How galling are the necessary restrictions in some homes, that your friend cannot see you because she has called on the wrong day! How hard to sit through your meals every day with society distasteful to you, or to pay for meals you are often unable to eat!" The occupiers of the rooms in each block that is built will be selected from a register of applicants, kept at the office of the company, by a committee of ladies. The

demand for rooms in the blocks already occupied has increased so rapidly that they have not only always been full, but there are numbers of applicants for the rooms if, as is seldom, any become vacant. It is satisfactory to know that these buildings have proved quite remunerative, although the rents have been kept exceptionally low. There is no doubt but when the dwellings now proposed to be erected are finished and occupied, they will not only prove of incalculable benefit to those ladies fortunate enough to occupy them, but will also realize very good dividends. The first block is now in course of erection in Lower Sloane Street, and its success seems to be already assured. In all these buildings, wherever in London they may be located, there will be one private room for each tenant. Public reading, writing, music and sitting-rooms will also be provided, as well as studios and work-rooms. There will also be a public dining-hall, but ladies can have their meals in their own rooms. In short, as I started to say at the beginning, this project or scheme is simply to supply good and cheap associated homes for unprotected ladies, thereby shielding them from many of the unpleasant and otherwise inevitable consequences of small means. The private room is not to be a mere bedroom and nothing more. It is to be appropriate for a work-room or a study, so that the occupant can receive pupils, carry on any home-employment, and see her friends at any time she may choose. There are homes on the principle of "Annuitants' Homes," or "Royal Homes." These are, of course, of great benefit to indigent ladies. But in them all there exists to a certain extent the element of charity, as they are not self-supporting. But, as Lady Mary Fielding says, "Even self-supporting homes need not exclude charity, although they do not depend on it. It is easy to pay (unknown to other inmates) the rent of any lady who is unable to do so herself."

We live in deeds, not years; in thoughts, not breaths;
In feelings, not in figures on a dial.
We should count time by heart throbs. He most lives
Who thinks most, feels the noblest, acts the best.

— Philip Bailey.

TEN TIMES ONE.

"Look up and not down:—
Look forward and not back:—
Look out and not in,
And Lend a Hand."

PRINCESS CASH TWENTY-SEVEN.

BY E. B. GURTON.

"Cash! Cash! Ca-a-ash!" called a busy salesman in a large Boston shop, and a pale girl of twelve ran up to the counter, saying "Twenty-seven," as she reached it.

"Well, Twenty-seven, you took your time about getting here," growled the salesman, "and here's this lady in a hurry to get her train. Be quick, now."

"Twenty-seven" darted away, soon came back with bundle and change, and said, saucily, "The lady'd have got her change sooner if you hadn't stopped me so's to show her how well you could jaw a Cash!"

"None of your impudence here," began the salesman, angrily, as he saw an appreciative smile on the face of the lady, who was putting her bundle into her large shopping bag. The call of "Cash! Cash!" from a neighboring counter prevented any reply from "Twenty-seven," who rushed away to answer it. As she ran she stopped to pick up a book which lay on the floor. It was not new, but had evidently been much read. She looked at the title and saw that it was a story, then glanced at the people near to see who had dropped it. A young lady with a pleasant face was nearest. "Did you lose this?" asked "Cash," holding up the book.

"I must have dropped it just now," said the lady; then, seeing the look of disappointment on the child's face, she added, "Are you fond of reading? You may have the book if you'd like it."

"Oh, *thank* you! I *love* books," said "Cash," when a

"walker" came up, and began roughly, "Cash! Twenty-seven, why don't you go to the linen counter there instead of gossiping with the customers?" "Cash" started and went toward the linen counter, giving a grateful smile to the lady, who turned to the "walker" and said, "Mr. Green, is there any rule forbidding customers to speak to the cash-girls?"

"I beg your pardon, Mrs. Ellerton, I did not see that it was you. Our cash-girls would waste so much time, and keep customers waiting so long for their change, if we let them talk to every one, that we have had to forbid their stopping to speak to anyone."

"I am sorry, then, that my carelessness got the child into trouble," said Mrs. Ellerton. "I dropped a book, and she picked it up and asked if it was mine. That was all."

"That was all right," said the "walker," "but it's not often a Cash has a good reason for delay. They're a very trying lot," and he went off to tell an old lady where to find the lace counter—"the real laces, you know; not the miserable imitations."

When the noon-hour came Cash Twenty-seven declined all invitations to walk or talk, and sat in a corner eating a wedge of pie, and reading the book given her by the lady.

It had several stories of widely different kinds. The first was a short fairy tale, about a princess who had everything she wanted, married the prince, and lived happy ever afterward. This left Cash Twenty-seven wishing that she was a princess, and could have another piece of pie for dinner; one piece was so little after being on one's feet all the morning!

All the afternoon she thought of the happy princess, and wished that she was a princess herself, till, by five o'clock, it really seemed to her that it was not worth while to be anything if she could not be a princess and "live happy ever afterward."

In a very discontented mood Cash Twenty-seven started homeward. It rained very hard, and she had neither rubbers, umbrella nor waterproof cloak.

"The princess would have a hack," she thought, "and ride home comfortable, and a nice hot supper—oyster-stew, I shouldn't wonder—when she got there. A princess has a king for her father, and that's what's the matter, I guess. My father ain't a king; he's only 'Drunk Joe.'"

"Drunk Joe" was not at home that night, and his wife had a pair of trousers to finish for the slop-shop for which she worked,

so Cash Twenty-seven pulled an old chair up to the table on which the lamp stood, and began a second story. It did not interest her much, so she turned over the pages till she came to the last story of all, which was headed "The King's Daughter." "There's another princess!" she said to herself. "I'll read that and see if *she* was always happy and had everything she wanted."

It was a very different story from the first, and told how a young girl started a club of ten girls of her own age, and how they tried to do something good every day, and to help people about them. It told of their weekly meetings, where each member of the Ten told what she had done during the week, and how many people she had helped. It told what the Ten did with the money raised by the weekly fees or contributions, and it ended with an earnest appeal to all girls to become Daughters of the King, and do good all their lives, explaining that every girl could be a daughter of this King, no matter what her condition in life.

Cash Twenty-seven went to bed thinking about the two kinds of princesses, and said to herself, "Now *I* can be a princess if I want to. How the girls'd laugh if I should tell 'em that! There ain't any club of Ten that would want *me*, and I ain't by no means sure that I'd want the other nine! I'd feel kind o' mean to stand up an' say before 'em all, 'I couldn't do very much, but I tied up Katie Ryan's arm when she nit it; an' I gave a lady back the purse she lost in the store—I wanted it awfully, too!—an' I took Maggie Flynn's work in my noon-hour, 'cause she had a headache, an' running hurt her; an' I gave Winnie Shea half my dinner 'cause it rained too hard for her to go out an' get some, an' she was too near late to stop for it in the mornin'.' I'd look nice sayin' all that to 'em, wouldn't I, now? That's the kind o' thing they told, though—settin' the table when Mary had a headache; an' pickin' a baby out o' the gutter an' tyin' up his leg where he hurt it!' I don't see the sense o' tellin' things like that. Anyone'd do 'em, an' I don't see the use o' makin' such a fuss about it. I'm bound to be a princess, an' I can't be the other kind, so I'll be this kind, but I'll be it on my own hook, an' not go bragging about it to any Ten! I guess the King'll know all about it, if I do all the things I can. I'll have a badge, though, an' wear it 'round my neck on a string. It'll be just the first shiny ten-cent piece I get, a nice new one. Pat'll put a hole through it for me at the blacksmith's shop. I sha'n't have any fees, so I'll just have to do the

things that don't cost money. There's lots of 'em. I can help the little Cashes, and not sass the clerks, an' be quick, an' careful not to knock into folks. Oh, there'll be ways enough," and after a little Cash Twenty-seven was asleep, dreaming of being turned into a golden princess, who was always setting tables and eating thick pieces of pie!

In the morning she awoke with a sense of something new and pleasant that was going to happen, and in a moment she remembered her plan of "being a princess," and she began to practise it at once by dressing quickly and helping her mother get the scant breakfast. Then she hurried away to the shop and worked hard all day to keep pleasant and not "answer back" when the tired salesmen and women scolded or blamed unnecessarily. She helped the other girls as much as she could, but had done nothing that seemed to her worthy of a princess.

Several days passed thus, and she began to think that she couldn't be "this kind of a princess" either, when, one rainy Saturday, her chance came.

A lady, who was hurrying for her train, dropped her purse and a small parcel just as Cash Twenty-seven was passing with some change, and saw them fall. Picking them up she ran after the lady and reached her at the door, stumbling and falling against a sharp corner as she did so. The lady was very grateful, and, seeing that the child's arm was grazed, she said, "Take this and get some plaster for your arm. I cannot stop to do it up for you, or I should lose my train, but I am very sorry you hurt you on my account."

So saying she gave Cash a bright new dime and hurried away.

"There's my badge!" said Cash, joyfully, and, wrapping it in a bit of paper, she put it into her pocket, until Pat should "put a hole through it."

At the noon-hour a small, timid, sick-looking Cash came up to her and said, "Say, Twenty-seven, will you lend me ten cents?"

"Ten cents! Do you take me for Jordan & Marsh? What do you want of ten cents, anyhow?" asked the princess.

"Maggie Murphy an' me, we ain't had no breakfast, nor no supper last night, an' we ain't got a cent to get any dinner with, an' you're somehow different to the others, an' I says to Maggie, 'I'm going to ask Twenty-seven to lend me ten cents. She's kinder'n the other girls.' An' Maggie, she says to me, 'I wouldn't then,'

says she. 'Twenty-seven's one of the big ones, an' she'll only jaw yer,' says she. But I knew you'd speak easy, even if you wouldn't lend me the dime, an' so I came."

Cash Twenty-seven looked into the appealing eyes turned up to hers, and her hand went to her pocket—it went very slowly, but it went, and, after a moment's silence, she said: "I ain't got but a dime, but you can have that. A lady gave it to me for finding her purse this morning."

The little girl ran away to find Maggie Murphy, and Cash Twenty-seven was left alone, with a very empty-feeling pocket.

"Well," she said to herself, at last, "I guess it's all right. If I was the other kind of princess I'd have to have a crown so's people would know, but bein' I'm this kind, an' no one knows anyway—except the King—why, I don't really need a badge. *He'll* know, an' *I* know. It was kind o' nice to have a badge, though, but it was nicer to give it to the little Cashes, I guess. It's awful to be hungry. I can get along without the badge better'n they could without dinner, an' I guess the King's Daughter would have done it."

After this plenty of chances came to Princess Cash Twenty-seven, and she did so well with them that the saleswomen, the "walkers," and even one of the partners noticed how gentle, careful, and helpful she was, and when she was sixteen she was promoted to a place behind a counter, and soon became a favorite saleswoman.

She could now spare a few cents every week for the dinner of some hungry "Cash;" and at her noon-hour she was so surrounded by the cash-girls, who were then off duty, that one day the junior partner, going by, stopped to say, "Why, Miss Flint, you are quite a princess, with her court about her!" The little cash-girls never knew why Miss Flint's cheeks grew so pink, nor did they hear her say to herself, "Princess Cash Twenty-seven! And somebody knows besides the King and me! But I never told!"

I AM; thou art; he is! seems but a school-boy's conjugation. But therein lies a mysterious meaning. We behold all round about us one vast union, in which no man can labor for himself, without laboring at the same time for all others.—*Longfellow.*

THE KINDLY CLUB.

THE work of the Kindly Committee is that of finding employment for persons who are seeking it, and especially of bringing together by correspondence, families in the country looking for help in any capacity, and those who cannot find work in the great cities and are willing to leave them.

Persons interested in the Kindly Club are earnestly requested to make this fact known in country places, and to help in starting Kindly Club branches, so that strangers sent to such places may feel that they have some one who will take an interest in them.

Employers are charged a small fee for help provided in any capacity, and those who obtain positions through the Kindly Committee are expected to pay 25 cents out of their first earnings.

References given if desired.

JANET E. RUUTZ-REES.

General Secretary Kindly Club.

19 East 16th St., New York City.

OUR MOTTO.

"Look up, not down;" so shalt thy face
Reflect the brightness of the sky
It gazes on, and thy small space
Of earth be warmed and cheered thereby.

"Look out, not in;" no thoughts to spare
For self, but all on others turned;
So shalt thy own sore need of care
Be satisfied, God's care be learned.

"Look forward and not backward;" leave
The past with God, its sins that still
Would cloud thy soul's new dawn. Believe,
Though thou may'st not forgive, He will.

And "lend a hand" to him in need
Of its warm clasp; thy other laid
In His who helps thee; so shalt speed
Love's current through the circuit made.

—S. C. D.

LOVE, therefore, labor; if thou shouldst not want it for food, thou mayst for physic. It is wholesome to the body and good for the mind; it prevents the fruit of idleness.—*William Penn.*

NORTHAMPTON, MASS.

O, worship the Lord in the beauty of holiness.

THE STORMY-DAY LEAGUE.

For the good of my church I hereby promise to make especial effort to attend its morning service on stormy and disagreeable Sundays.

Any person may become a member of the Stormy-Day League by signing this card and by notifying the pastor of that action. He may withdraw from the league at any time by sending the card to the pastor.

I am come that they might have life, and that they might have it more abundantly.

DAVENPORT, IOWA.

THE *Lend a Hand Echoes* prints the following letter, which we have pleasure in copying:—

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS.

To the Working Woman's Lend-a-Hand Club: You dear Harry Wadsworth people! Do you know what you are doing? Doubtless it looks very small to you, but in reality it is immense—the influence you are exerting unconsciously to yourselves. How I would like to shake hands with every one of you! I cannot tell you how pleased I was to receive a copy of *Lend-a-Hand Echoes*! It is an excellent little paper, and a very great credit to the editorial management. Can't you make it weekly and raise the subscription to \$1.00? It would be such a help and inspiration if it could go into every house every week.

When the Current Calendar of the Chicago Woman's Club was being made up, I was asked for a paper. I said, "Yes, I will write a paper; I would like to have you put me down for a paper on 'Harry Wadsworth.'" Accordingly, on the 20th of March I hope to redeem my promise and present the claims of our "patron saint" to the women of our Club. So you see I am one of you.

God bless you, and keep you in harmony, for harmony is strength and power; dissension and hate are disintegrating and destroying.

Sincerely yours,

LEILA G. BEDELL, M. D.

REPORTS OF TEN TIMES ONE CLUBS, ETC.

LANCASTER, MASS.

WE organized in October and adopted the name of the "Neighbors."

We started with fourteen members, and in our by-laws limited our membership to twenty. This will, perhaps, seem at variance with Mr. Hale's ideas, but we think it best for us till we gain more knowledge and experience in working together. We have already filled out our number.

The objects of our society as set down in the by-laws read thus:—

The objects and aims of this society are

1. A joint effort to do good.
2. A personal endeavor to lead a truly neighborly life in thought and word and deed.
3. To engage in such acts of neighborly usefulness as may from time to time come before us, without regard to any social or sectarian prejudice.
4. To meet together for the purpose of encouraging each other and gain such information and knowledge of the various philanthropic and charitable works in the world at large, by readings, conversations and otherwise, as shall help us when any call presents itself, to judge wisely and intelligently, to Lend a Hand in His Name.

We meet together at each other's homes every two weeks. In the intervening weeks the Executive Committee, which consists of the president, secretary and three members, meet to consider questions of work or to prepare something for the next meeting of the society, and part of each meeting is given to reading. Once, selections from *LEND A HAND*; once, a sermon by Phillips Brooks upon Christian Charity. At the last meeting we had whatsoever any one could find to bring about Robert McAll and his missions. This week the subject will be Miss Dorothea Dix and her work, and that is to be followed by Florence Nightingale.

We begin each meeting with reading from the Scriptures by the president, then a report of the last meeting by the secretary.

At the last meeting it was voted to establish an emergency box, which we call, in memory of the early Christian worker, "Our Dorcas Box." It has already received donations.

We have given a little help toward a barrel of useful things sent to the Hospital Cottages for Children at Baldwinsville, and have done a little sewing for an unfortunate infant, deserted by its father, and seemingly so by its mother; but she is now well cared for, at least, for the present. Then came up the case of a blind child at the poor-farm, but she does not need our help until old enough to be sent to the asylum, which will not be until next year. Then she will need to be clothed and cared for in a different way from that the town can give. A sick woman, in humble circumstances, who has just gone through a painful surgical operation, and also lost her washing one night, by its being stolen from the line, next came under our care. We do not know what next. We shall have brought before the next meeting a consideration of some permanent work, like the care of some child. We do not know just what, but something to do when cases near at hand do not come up or do not need our help. Our motto is:

"Bear ye one another's burdens."

BUFFALO, N. Y.

WE formed a "ten" of King's Sons, in which our pastor was much interested and expressed a wish to meet the young men at his house. Accordingly, a night was appointed and the meeting was held, and the members all said they enjoyed the meeting very much. It seemed as if he could have more influence, and he afterwards consented to take this "ten."

I am now the leader of another "ten" of King's Sons, composed of five or six of my Sunday School scholars. Only those who are anxious to come join, and we hope to add the other four soon. The youngest is seven years old and the eldest twelve. They have collected about fifty books and toys, twenty-six Christmas cards and a number of school books, that they carried to the Orphan Asylum the day before Christmas. They were all second hand, but they met one afternoon and with glue and mucilage made them whole. This is the first work they have done as King's Sons, and makes them feel what spirit should animate a Son of the King.

THE secret of all success is to know how to deny yourself. If you once learn to get the whip-hand of yourself, that is the best educator.—*Mrs. Oliphant.*

AMHERST, MASS.

WE boys have all been away during the summer.

You remember, perhaps, that you asked whether we wouldn't like to correspond with another society. This was brought up in our meeting and we all thought it would be very nice to do so.

We have just begun in our winter's work. We are earning money to send to a good missionary in Dakota that he may pay men for the digging out of stones for the foundation of a little church. After the stones are got out, the people all come together and drag them to the site of the church, so saving all further expense.

Then, besides this, we are going to make some little things ourselves for their Christmas tree. But as we all go to school, and like to play, too, we do not get much time for society work.

WEST MEDFORD, MASS.

YOU will feel interested to know that our club has earned some right to its name.

We had a Thanksgiving offering entertainment, and we had the pleasure of distributing ten bushels of provisions and \$16.00 in money, the boys of the club, six in number, doing the work of distribution in a very delicate, careful, and, at the same time, intensely enthusiastic manner. We have six girls in the club and no officers.

Since the first of October we have been at work for a Christmas sale. The club has worked nobly, and with much patient sacrifice of their few play hours. On the 18th of December the sale was held and netted \$44.00. It was divided equally between the Little Wanderers' Home and the Omaha Indian Agency, in charge of Dr. Hensel. The members pay ten cents a month each towards the same agency.

The children respond readily to all good enthusiasms, and, like many other boys and girls, they need only to have good impulses put into their hearts, and a good cause into their hands.

CHESTNUT HILL.

I HAVE been very much pleased with the success of our little circle. We call ourselves the Opportunity Circle, and have adopted as our motto the text: "As we have therefore opportunity,

let us do good unto all men." We are working for the Little Wanderers' Home, and are just now making some bedding for the new Home.

The members have shown so much enterprise and eagerness for work that we feel sure we shall be successful. We, as well as many others, owe many thanks to Dr. Hale as the originator of our society.

LOUISVILLE, KY.

A "King's Messengers" Club has been organized in this city. As yet it is composed of but twelve members, but we hope to have more in the future. We meet once a month, and our aim is to help others. Each meeting we select a new object to try to live up to; as one month we tried not to speak ill of any one. Christmas we had our special work, but as the society is very young we cannot do much yet.

MOBILE, ALA.

WE, who are so far from home and friends, and are without society (except the teachers of the school, nine in number), enjoy the feeling that in the North we have *friends* who remember us.

In this mission work the opportunities to "lend a hand" seem to be ever present. It is, indeed, a pleasure to be placed in a position where one can find so many ways of helping others. We feel that the time passes even too quickly to accomplish the great amount of labor which awaits us.

The girls whom we have organized into bands to "lend a hand in His name" are all so very poor that nothing can be done in the way of raising money, and we, who are engaged in teaching, find that we cannot respond to all the calls upon our purses, so we are having those who find spare time out of school-hours read to old people, or any, in fact, who cannot read themselves.

We also have had them bring reports of cases where children were staying from Sunday-school for want of clothing, and as far as possible we supply such wants, with the aid of friends in the North, who send us clothing, etc.

We have been very busy the past week in preparing a surprise for our Mission Church. Several Sunday-schools in the

North sent us boxes of toys, etc., to be put on a Christmas tree for our little colored Sunday-school boys and girls. A merrier Christmas few of the children have ever had.

In Atlanta, Ga., I found a much more intelligent class of colored people. Here we find discouraging work, but we see all the more need of it.

BUFFALO, N. Y.

WE have splendid workers. I have my own "ten." We call ourselves the Welcoming Ten, and make it our special effort to welcome all new-comers, and make those who are now in the church have better times. There is need of it. My little "ten" is my own particular "ten." It is the only one in all the "tens" not sectarian. They are called the "Willing Ten," and try to be more willing to mind at home and at school. It is a dear little "ten." They come here and sew awhile and then have a good time. They have made a dozen large bags and filled them with all sorts of good things, such as a child likes, and tomorrow I take them to some very poor children. I confess I am as impatient as as the "ten" to have them delivered.

One "ten" of girls about twelve or fourteen have just had a fair, and cleared thirty-three dollars, which yesterday they spent in supplying three families with necessities. Another "ten," about ten or eleven years old, have been meeting and making flannel skirts for the poor. We have a branch of the Charity Organization in our church, which can supply us with all the poor we want to work for. Two "tens" have just given a supper and tree at the Circle to the babies and their mothers. We have one "ten" of young men. Several of my "ten" have "tens" of small boys or young lads just formed.

WOOSTER, OHIO.

I JOINED the first "ten" formed in Hartford, in 1886, and in a few months had a "ten" of my own. As all were then interested in other lines of charitable work, we took up no work as a "ten." Leaving Hartford a year later, I came here, and was the only person in town wearing the cross. A Chautauquan, seeing mine, asked about it, and wished me to form a "ten." Although almost

a stranger, I was assisted by acquaintances and soon had a "ten." Today I have twenty-two, and more are talking of joining. At our last monthly meeting we had three visitors, one of whom joined, and two more I think will join. Nearly half of the number are incapacitated by home cares, sickness, or care of invalids for attendance at our monthly meetings, but they are interested, enjoy wearing the cross, and do what they can at home of the little things that *do* count.

From May 1st to August 1st we had a sewing school, which was a great success.

SCHENECTADY, N. Y.

A YEAR ago Dr. Pentecost was in Schenectady, and the result was a large ingathering of boys from twelve to twenty, without any special aim or knowledge as to how to go to work to be practical Christians. So three of us made up our minds to try and give them the "lend a hand" principle for their daily life. We are trying to get ten "tens," each independent of the others in their modes of work, but all united on the Wadsworth motto. We have sixteen organized, and hope soon to get four more, and then we mean to have a mass meeting of all and suggest ways and means for further development.

Some of the "tens" have no organization, only lending a hand as they find opportunity; others have regular rules, officers (some military) and specified work. Each "ten" has one lady only, as we want it to be distinctively a boys' club, and here the girls take possession of everything. We have a very simple little white ivory cross with I. H. N. in the centre as a monogram in black. The boys like it very much.

We call ourselves the "Harry Wadsworth Ten Times One Club," and will try to do credit to the original influence. We have been trying to make out a short history of Harry Wadsworth and the growth of the club for circulation, as so few can read the book, and all want the history of the organization.

We have one "ten" of young men in our big shops, and they are trying to "lend a hand" as they work.

A MORAL care over the tempted and ignorant portion of the state is a primary duty of society.

AUGUSTA, ME.

OUR club was organized last March, and has held all its meetings except one in our own parlors. We labor under quite a disadvantage in not having quite enough of the parents interested. I do not think they realize the good work we are trying to do.

We have four boys from one family, one an invalid and lame, but who is greatly interested, and enjoys the meetings. Certainly the club has lent a hand to make his life happier by meeting with him. He is nine years old. Eighteen boys have joined the club. They gave an entertainment at the church last summer in season to send \$10.00, which they realized, to Boston for the benefit of poor children to enjoy a week in the country. They have given three entertainments in our parlors. They have had a sale of ten cent packages also. We have with us this winter, in exchange with our own pastor, a clergyman from California, who has two boys, and the club meets at his house next time. It is a great encouragement to us.

EXTRACTS FROM LETTERS.

I HAVE a "ten" of the King's Daughters nearly completed, with members in four different states and one in Germany. I have selected them in this way purposely that the work might take root in new localities, and the circle be widened.

WE are so separated as seldom to all meet, but have worked quietly the past year, and the number has increased. One member is teaching in Mt. Hermon Seminary at Clinton, Mass. The Seminary is founded on the plan of Mt. Holyoke Seminary, and is for colored girls.

PERSONS who are forming clubs, or are interested in Ten Times One work, are requested to address all letters of inquiry to Mrs. Bernard Whitman, Lawrence Avenue, Dorchester, Mass.

Mrs. Whitman is the central secretary of the clubs, and will gladly give information or help in forming them. It is desirable to keep the list of clubs as complete as possible, and all clubs based on the Wadsworth mottoes which have not sent in their names are requested to do so.

INTELLIGENCE.

CATHOLIC TOTAL ABSTINENCE UNION.

To Members of the C. T. A. U. of America:

The Executive Council of the C. T. A. U. of A., at its meeting in New York City, December 18th, after a careful examination of all that interests the organization, thought it wise to send a cordial New Year's greeting to the members, and at the same time, by a special bulletin, call attention to certain points in our work which commended themselves to its best judgment.

FATHER MATHEW CHAIR FUND.

The great work our Union has undertaken, in aid of the University, bids us once more summon our societies to take immediate action and pledge themselves to give what generosity towards so noble a cause will prompt. The University itself, Father Mathew's name and deeds, our Union pride, and, above all, the pledged word of our delegates, all these as motives urge every member to make an effort at once to redeem so sacred a promise. Our convention action has given edification to the people and encouragement to those who have charge of the University. It has proved that our organization seeks to aid the great work of the church in this country, and it has served to refute the oft-repeated charge that total abstinence makes men selfish and uncharitable. We urge you to immediate action. Bring this University subscription before your society at its next meeting. Pledge what you can according to your numbers, specify a time for payment before November, 1889, inform your Diocesan Solicitor or the General Secretary of your action and devise means at once to redeem your promise. Act promptly and generously. Let every society place its name on this glorious Roll of Honor, and thus merit for our Union the grateful remembrance of all who love

our holy religion and are interested in Catholic education and total abstinence.

PUBLIC RALLIES.

As a means of increasing our membership, let every society in the Union, with the consent and aid of its Spiritual Director, hold a *public rally* as soon as possible, invite the best speakers available and spare no pains to have the Total Abstinence cause and its advantages presented in such way as to draw into our fold the hundreds in every community who are ignorant of the many benefits, spiritual and temporal, which our organization offers. Be not satisfied with merely belonging to a society, but strive to bring other into membership. One of the best means is a well-organized public rally. If possible hold one at once.

"C. T. A. NEWS."

We feel it a pleasure, as we consider it a duty, to call special attention at this time to the work done for our Union by the *C. T. A. News* of Philadelphia. We consider it the most valuable agent in our organization, as a medium of the best thought of our temperance workers and a chronicler of the best work done by our Union Societies. The low price of its subscription places it within the reach of all. We urge every society to place it on its table for society use, and we still more strongly urge every member to subscribe for it for his own use at home. It has already done good service and is capable of doing an infinitely greater good if our members would take pride in supporting it generously. Let your society, by its subscription, help make it the best society paper in the country.

These are recommendations which the Executive Council thinks proper to make at this time. We realize that our Union is in a good financial condition and is making fair progress, but we are not satisfied, and will not be until our membership is doubled. We can do this before our Cleveland Convention, if we are only in earnest. To stir up our members to that earnestness, we send this New Year's greeting, and beg of God to grant our members abundant blessings during the year now opening. We entreat them, in the name of Religion, Country, Home and Manhood, to resolve anew to hold aloft our stainless banner of Total Abstinence, and to labor by word and example to carry the principles of our movement into every home of our people, and thus enable them

the better to preserve the inheritance of country and faith, which we have received from our fathers and which we cherish as the sweetest privileges of freedom. Happy New Year to all the members of the C. T. A. U. of A.

REV. THOMAS J. CONATY,

President Executive Council, C. T. A. U. of A.

REV. M. M. SHEEDY, *1st Vice-president.*

THOMAS O'BRIEN, *2d Vice-president.*

REV. W. McMAHON, *Treasurer.*

JAN. 1, 1889.

PHILIP A. NOLAN, *Secretary.*

THE NATIONALIST CLUB.

A NUMBER of persons interested in the various plans by which it is proposed that society shall take the immediate direction of industry have formed the Nationalist Club of Boston. They say "The combinations, trusts, and syndicates of which the people at present complain demonstrate the practicability of our basic principle of association. We merely seek to push this principle a little further, and have all industries operated in the interest of all by the nation—the people organized—the organic unity of the whole people.

"The present industrial system proves itself wrong by the immense wrongs it produces; it proves itself absurd by the immense waste of energy and material which is admitted to be its concomitant. Against this system we raise our protest; for the abolition of the slavery it has wrought and would perpetuate, we pledge our best efforts."

The object of the club is stated as being the nationalization of industry, and thereby the promotion of the brotherhood of humanity. There are to be two classes of members; active members are those who believe in the nationalization of industry; associate membership is open to all who believe in the nationalization of any special industry not already under the control of the nation. Associate members have all the rights and privileges of active members except the right to vote.

It is at present proposed to hold meetings monthly, and to organize branches and affiliated clubs.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.

THE following is the outline of President Gilman's course, now in progress, on Social Science:—

OUTLINE.

The terms "Social Science" and "Sociology" discussed. Not quite felicitous phrase, but convenient and recognized. Definitions of Social Science read and commented on by William T. Harris and Herbert Spencer. Definition by Exclusion, Social Science not Law, not Political Economy, not History, not Religion, but it is closely related to all these.

Is it possible to have a Science of Society or a Society of Nature? Methods by which Social Science may be advanced: the same as in other sciences, viz.:—

- a. The observation and collection of facts.
- b. The orderly arrangement of these facts.
- c. Careful, systematic record and publication of progress.
- d. Inquiry into the principles involved in the facts.
- e. The endeavor to discover lessons useful to mankind.

Methods of study which minds of different orders will be likely to select:—

- a. Observation. c. Comparison. e. Biography.
- b. Statistics. d. History. f. Philosophy.

Fundamental ideas requisite:—

- a. Of man's nature, physical, mental, moral, social.
- b. Of the historical development of the actual conditions of modern society.

Three questions on which students of Social Science are now working:—

- a. Prevention of vice, crime, poverty, sickness, etc.
- b. Relief and reform, of wicked, unfortunate, and downcast.
- c. Uplifting, by education, amusements, libraries, etc.

Inducements to these studies:—

- a. As preparation for duties of a good citizen.
- b. As preparation for certain vocations. Teachers and professors, legislators, administrators of public institutions, writers and investigators.

Illustration of progress of another science—Chemistry.

READ AND CONSULT.

For current information:—

The *International Record*, edited by F. H. Wines. *Monthly*

Record of the Philadelphia Charity Organization Society, and, as an illustration of a remarkable experiment, *The Summary*, published by the Elmira Reformatory.

For fundamental ideas respecting the state, keep in mind and often consult such books as "Plato's Republic," "Aristotle's Politics," Welldon's Translation, "Cicero's Republic," "Bluntschli," "The State," Authorized English Translation, "Lotze's Microcosmus," Vol. II, chapter on Political Life and Society, "Lieber's Political Ethics," Vol. I, chapter on The State as an Ethical Power. These books would make a good foundation for a library of Social Science. Others will be hereafter pointed out.

I.

MUNICIPAL AND STATE CHARITIES. PHILANTHROPY AND ECONOMICS.

1. Self-interest and self-sacrifice in theory and in practice ; as yet no science of self-sacrifice.
2. Charity and the Church.
3. Economic bearings of mediæval Charity.
4. English Economists and the Poor-laws.
5. English Philanthropists and Factory Legislation.
6. The "New Charity" ; its purposes and methods ; its relation to the "New Political Economy."

SELECT REFERENCES.

Edgar Lovering, "Armenwesen" ; Schönberg, Vol. III ; A. Emminghaus, "das Armenwesen, u. d. Armengesetzgebung der Europäischen Staaten" ; Nicholls, "History of the Poor-Laws" ; Edwin Hodder, "Life and Works of the Earl of Shaftesbury" ; consult by index the Political Economies of Smith, Ricardo, Chalmers, Whately and Mill ; "Bibliographical Helps" ; H. B. Adams, "Notes on Literature of Charities" ; Catalogue of State Charity Aid Association, New York ; also files of LEND A HAND, and "International Record of Charities and Correction."

II.

CAUSES OF POVERTY.

1. Antecedent Causes : Dugdale's and McCulloch's studies in Heredity.
2. Existing Causes : theoretical and practical difficulties in classifying them.

3. Attempts at the statistical determination of the causes of poverty:—

- a. German Classifications.
- b. Booth's Classification.
- c. Classification adopted by the Charity Organization Societies of the United States.

4. Opportunities for the observation of concrete cases in Baltimore.

SELECT REFERENCES.

C. J. Ribton Turner, "History of Vagrants and Vagrancy"; Dugdale, "The Jukes"; O. C. McCulloch, "The Tribe of Ishmael"; H. W. Farnam, "The State of the Poor" (has good bibliographical suggestions in foot-notes); Francis Peek, "Social Wreckage"; "Tenth Annual Report of Buffalo C. O. S."; Charles Booth, "The Conditions and Occupations of the People of East London and Hackney in 1887."

MUNICIPAL AND STATE CHARITIES. — SUPPLEMENT.

CAUSES OF POVERTY.	SUBJECTIVE.	Charac- teristics.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Undervitalization and indolence. 2. Specific disease. 3. Lubricity. 4. Lack of judgment. 5. Unhealthy appetites.
		Habits producing and produced by the above.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Shiftlessness. 2. Abuse of stimulants and narcotics. 3. Self-abuse and sexual excess. 4. Unhealthy diet. 5. Disregard of Family Ties.
			<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Bad climatic conditions. 2. Defective sanitation, etc. 3. Evil associations and surroundings. Defective education. 4. Defective legislation and defective judicial and punitive machinery.
	OBJECTIVE.	Bad indus- trial con- ditions.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Variations in value of money. b. Changes in trade. c. Excessive or ill-managed taxation. d. Emergencies unprovided for. e. Undue power of class over class.
			<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 6. Unwise Philanthropy.

III.

THE MACHINERY OF BENEVOLENCE.

1. Germany—Elberfeld System.
2. France—Incomes of the public charities; control of endowments.
3. England—The poor-laws; the charities of London.

SELECT REFERENCES.

Vide Ante. Loening, Emminghaus and Nicholls; Block's "Dictionary of Administration;" John de Liefde, "The Charities of Europe;" London Charity Organization Society; Charities Register and Digest.

IV.

AMERICAN STATE CHARITIES.

1. The various classes of dependents.
2. State versus county, or municipal relief.
3. Guiding principles in the location of burdens.
4. State Boards of Charities; organization and functions.

SELECT REFERENCES.

Reports of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections, 15 vols.; Reports of the State Boards of Charities of Illinois, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin.

V.

THE CHARITIES OF AMERICAN CITIES.

1. Three ways of expending public relief funds:—
 - a. In out door-relief.
 - b. Through public institutions.
 - c. Through private corporations.
2. Relation of municipal charities to municipal politics; the charities of New York.
3. Private charities.
4. The movement for the organization of charities; its origin and extent.

SELECT REFERENCES.

See preceding lecture; also Seth Low, "Municipal Charities"; Humphreys Gurteen, "Handbook of Charity Organiza-

tion"; Reports of the Charity Organization Societies of the United States; Directories of the Charities of Boston, New York, and Philadelphia.

VI.

CHARITIES OF BALTIMORE AND MARYLAND.

1. Annual Expenditures:—
 - a. State. b. City. c. Private.
2. The large proportion of public money expended through private corporations.
3. Sectarian influences.
4. The Baltimore Almshouse.
5. Lack of any supervisory and coördinating power; need of a State Board of Charities in Maryland.

SELECT REFERENCES.

Report of the Baltimore Conference on Charities; Directory of the Charities of Baltimore; Reports of the State and City officers, and of twenty of the leading Charities of Baltimore.

WORK FOR TENS.—If any ladies, either young persons or old ones, are sufficiently interested in Ramabai's work for the child-widows of India, to form "Clusters," or "Tens," among their own friends, to try in any way that they may choose to raise money to assist her in her efforts, will they kindly communicate with

MRS. G. N. DANA,

318 Beacon Street.

Boston, Feb. 9, 1889.

SELF-RELIANCE and self-denial will teach a man to drink out of his own cistern, and eat his own sweet bread, and to learn and labor truly to get his own living, and carefully to save and expend the good things committed to his trust.—*Lord Bacon*.

THE tyranny of the prince will not bring ruin to a state more surely than will indifference to the common welfare of a Republic.

—*Montesquieu*.

MASSACHUSETTS OFFICERS OF RELIEF.

THE Association of Secretaries and Agents of "Overseers of the Poor" met at the Chardon Street Bureau in Boston, on the 9th of January.

The meeting of this association, composed of the secretaries and agents of the Boards of Overseers of the Poor of the cities and large towns of this Commonwealth, which was held in Boston on Wednesday, the 9th of January, at the rooms of the Overseers of the Poor, was well attended, and was of unusual interest. The subject for discussion was "Shall out-door aid be limited by law?"

The discussion took a wide range. It was prefaced by an address by Rev. E. E. Hale, who began by referring to a paper prepared by Secretary Pettee of the Boston Board, giving the Boston side of the Brooklyn-Boston controversy as to out-door aid.* He (Dr. Hale) said the general drift of opinion now is in the direction of cutting off official out-door aid.

He was glad that Brooklyn had succeeded. It having been suggested that Brooklyn owed its success to a removal of its poor in numbers to the nearer city of New York, Dr. Hale said that there was no evidence that such was the fact.

He gave his opinion that out-door aid should be given by local volunteer societies, such as the Associated Charities and like organizations. He spoke well of the methods in use in Boston, in the office of the Overseers of the Poor, and thought that every precaution was used. But, after all, he said, he did not approve of giving out-door aid by public officials. He spoke of the system of soup distribution formerly in vogue in the city of Boston as probably a mere "political charity," and as encouraging pauperism.

He said, in conclusion, that while it was very convenient to apply to the Overseers of the Poor, on the whole he would be best satisfied if the system was abolished so soon as this could be done without causing suffering.

Dr. Hale was followed by Hon. Robert Treat Paine, who said he agreed largely with his views. He did not think we were quite ready to abolish out-door aid, because he would not have any one suffer. He thought it might be brought about in five years, and by making careful and gradual preparation. In speaking of the Brooklyn experience, he said that in the middle of winter, when

* See LEND A HAND for February.

the demands for aid were many and strenuous, the Board was advised that it was illegal to bestow official out-door aid, and it was stopped at once, and apparently with no evil result. In regard to the alleged increase of children in asylums, he said it was not due to cutting off the relief in Brooklyn, but rather to a change in the law, by which more children were brought under the care of the authorities.

He thought the experience in Brooklyn was evidence that out-door aid could be stopped without causing suffering. He was of the opinion that a method of reform could be agreed upon in the association by which the mischief attending out-door aid could be lessened, if not entirely done away.

He expressed the opinion that if the husband and father was intemperate and vicious, aid should be withheld; that is, the non-supporter should not be supported.

Families, he said, should be often visited and their condition and earnings carefully inquired into. If it was found that the earnings of the children were nearly sufficient for the support of the family, aid should be stopped.

Mr. Paine was followed by Mr. Gardner of Brockton, who said that the public sentiment in small places was deficient as to the matter of out-door aid, and that more education of the public mind was necessary. The public does not investigate, but is ruled by its first sympathies.

Mr. Gale of Worcester said that if officials of towns would promptly investigate when notice was received, so many less cases would become chronic. He was of the opinion that the law was well enough if properly administered.

Mr. Smith of Lowell said that populations differed in their characteristics. Lowell has one kind; Taunton, another; Worcester, another, and so on. Each variety needed a different treatment. He was of the opinion that it was impossible to stop out-door aid in some localities, but thought a good deal could be accomplished by administration. The relieving board in Lowell buys its supplies in quantities at wholesale prices.

Mr. Muzzey said that in Cambridge they were accustomed to give shoes and that he believed this must still be done.

The following resolution was then introduced:—

Resolved, That in the opinion of the association it is not expedient to furnish any relief except food, fuel expenses, burials, and necessary medicines and stimulants.

In the debate that followed Mr. Gale said the official must stand up and face public sentiment.

Mr. Hartshorn said he thought it advisable to apply some legal limitation and restraint.

Mr. Folsom of Somerville said he hoped the resolution would not be adopted, for the reason that many members of the association could not do as they pleased, but were subject to dictation.

Mr. Gardner of Brockton favored the resolution. So did Mr. Smith of Lowell, but he was doubtful if it could be carried out. The vote was then taken and the resolution adopted.

The next meeting was ordered for the second Wednesday in February.

BROWN UNIVERSITY.

At a meeting held on November 26, 1888, in response to a call issued for that purpose, the Brown University Historical and Economic Association was organized. The Executive Committee then chosen were empowered to frame a constitution for the association.

To further the objects mentioned in the constitution, two courses of lectures for the present winter have already been arranged. The first is to treat of "Problems of Municipal Government." This course was opened on the evening of Friday, January 4th, by the Hon. Seth Low, of Brooklyn, N. Y., formerly mayor of that city, who spoke upon the Problem of City Government in general. Mr. Low will be followed by Professor Woodrow Wilson, of Wesleyan University, Middletown, who will give two lectures, upon Modern Systems of City Government, and a Foreign Example of City Organization, respectively; by Professor Albert B. Hart, of Harvard University, lecturing on the People of American Cities; by Mr. Henry B. Gardner, of Brown University, on Municipal Taxation; by Professor Charles V. Chapin, of Brown University, on the Sanitary Administration of Cities; and by Professor Arthur M. Wheeler, of Yale University, on the Government of London. One or two other lectures will probably be given in this course. Due announcement of dates and lectures will be made hereafter. On the conclusion of the first course, a course of four lectures on "The History of Historical Writing in

America" will be given by Professor J. Franklin Jameson of Brown University.

The association is earnestly desirous of including in its membership all resident graduates and friends of the University.

One of the objects of such an association, as set forth in the call for organization, is the formation of groups of persons especially interested in historical or economic subjects for the more careful study of such subjects by means of papers and mutual discussions by the members. Such a group for the study of economic questions has already been formed, and will meet from time to time for the discussion of economic topics. Desires have been expressed for the formation of a historical group also.

REPORTS OF CHARITABLE ORGANIZATIONS.

BALTIMORE, MD.—*Hospital Relief Association*. Eighth Annual Report. *President*, George J. Torrance; *Secretary*, Morton Schaeffer. The Association founds homes and hospitals and supplements their work in providing many comforts to the patients. It also has a competent lecturer to deliver lectures on First Aid to the Injured. Current expenses, \$670.12; balance on hand, \$83.57.

BALTIMORE, MD.—*St. Lukeland Sanitarium*. Annual Report. Officers the same as Hospital Relief Association. This institution receives tired, worn-out and invalid women and children who need two weeks of rest and country air. Current expenses, \$710.74; balance on hand, \$34.63.

BOSTON.—*Provident Association*. Thirty-seventh Annual Report. *President*, Hon. Charles R. Codman; *Secretary*, William Hedge. The object of the association is to relieve the suffering of poverty without creating paupers. Current expenses, \$21,106.65; balance on hand, \$781.61.

DEDHAM, MASS.—*Temporary Asylum for Discharged Female Prisoners*. Twenty-fifth Annual Report. *President*, Mrs. Henry B. Mackintosh; *Secretary*, Miss Mary L. Adams. The asylum "affords shelter, instruction and employment to women charged with crime whose cases are disposed of without sentence." Current expenses, \$7,911.19; balance on hand, \$54.98.

NEW YORK.—*Children's Aid Society*. Thirty-sixth Annual

Report. *President*, William A. Booth; *Secretary*, Charles L. Brace. This work is described in the report as a "large, combined effort by the fortunate classes to train the children of the poor to take care of themselves." Current expenses, \$258,655.17; balance on hand, \$1,114.85.

NEW YORK.—*Wayside Day Nursery*. Fifth Annual Report. *President*, Mrs. Nathaniel A. Prentiss; *Secretary*, Mrs. Pierrepont Edwards. The object is to care for the young children of deserving poor people, so that the parents may go out for a day's work. Current expenses, \$2,960.59; balance on hand, \$24.51.

NORTHAMPTON, MASS.—*Clarke Institute for Deaf Mutes*. Twenty-first Annual Report. *President*, Lewis J. Dudley; *Clerk*, Edward B. Nims, M. D. This institution furnishes free instruction to deaf children and youth by the oral method. Current expenses, \$30,429.66.

DORCHESTER, MASS.—*Industrial School for Girls*. Annual Report. *President*, Mrs. E. S. Parkman; *Secretary*, Miss F. R. Morse. The school gives a training which fits girls for usefulness in after life. Current expenses, \$4,890.86; balance on hand, \$119.32.

BOSTON CHARITIES.

INFORMATION comes from the Associated Charities of the formation of three new societies during the year 1888.

A Home for Trained Nurses has been established with twenty beds. Other nurses will be received as table boarders. Parlors are open every evening to all trained nurses and their friends. There is also a library. Nurses without settled homes may make this their post office address. Application need be made only to the housekeeper.

The Working Girl's Friend Society provides a good home for \$2.00 or \$3.00 per week. There are thirty or forty beds. The morals and health of the girls are strictly attended to. If a girl loses her place she is not turned away, but allowed to remain without paying board if necessary. The home is in charge of the Gray Nuns, but is perfectly unsectarian.

The Tabernacle Young Men's Institute is designed to protect young men from evil influences. There are entertainments, excursions, social gatherings, a library, classes in various studies. The membership fee is \$1.00 per year, and it is open to all young men

of good character. There are also a free employment bureau and a restaurant. A woman's division gives similar advantages to young women.

The secretary calls attention to some changes.

Another branch of the Children's Aid Society has been established at Weston, Mass., called the Weston Home.

The office is now a bureau of information for all work for needy children. The agent finds boarding or free homes in private families, relatives contributing to board when able. The society has established home libraries of 15 volumes each for use by children of the neighborhood, the books to be exchanged from one library to another when necessary.

North Bennet Street Industrial School Girls' Club meets every evening with classes from 7.30 to 9.30, and recreation; on Saturdays bathing facilities are furnished from 4.30 to 9 o'clock p. m. Membership fee 10 cents a month, with extra charges for a few of the classes. Those not members may be admitted to the classes at 10 cents a lesson.

By the new law, no child under thirteen years of age shall be employed in any factory. No child under fourteen shall be employed during school hours unless he has attended school twenty weeks of the preceding year. No child under fourteen can be employed before 6 a. m. or after 7 p. m. No child under sixteen can be employed in any manufactory without a certificate of age and birthplace. If a child under fourteen cannot read and write, regular attendance at the public evening school may be certified instead. Truant officers are authorized to inquire into the subject, and there are penalties for both parents and employers who break the law.

A soldier or sailor of the war of the rebellion, whose poverty is not caused by his own criminal or wilful misconduct, or his widow or minor children when left without proper means of support, shall be supported outside of an almshouse, wholly or in part as may be necessary.

Statutes of 1888, chapter 22, decide that contracts for the manufacture of articles by the piece (the piece-price system) are not forbidden under the statute of 1883, chapter 447.

Common victuallers cannot sell or give away liquors on election days, nor innholders except to registered guests. (Statutes 1888, chapter 262.) Statute, 1888, chapter 106, forbids granting

of licenses to be exercised in a dwelling-house, except where shop has no interior means of communication with a dwelling or tenement.

Statute 1888, chapter 340, provides that in 1889 and after licenses shall be issued in Boston to only one place for each five hundred inhabitants; and chapter 341 raises the license fees to not less than \$1000 for licenses of the first class, \$250 for the second and third class, \$300 for the fourth class, and \$150 for the fifth.

THE COALVILLE SOCIETY.

SOME of our readers have been interested in Mr. George Smith of Coalville's society. He states its objects thus:—

OBJECTS OF THE GEORGE SMITH OF COALVILLE SOCIETY AND BAND OF LOVE.

1. To unite together in bonds of brotherly love and sympathy, children, young people, and adults of both sexes, and all ages, irrespective of sect or party, to help forward among themselves, and to extend to other children, young persons, and adults not in fellowship, the "life-work of George Smith of Coalville, which he, almost single-handed, has been doing for the Brickyard, Canal, Gipsy, Van, and other Children."

2. To induce the children of the rich to help the children of the poor, and the children of the poor to respect the children of the rich; and to gather the brethren and sisters together as often as may be required, for the purpose of assisting each other in love and good works, and helping the poorer brethren and sisters of the society, and others, with good character, into positions of respectability.

3. To collect and distribute money for educational or other purposes, pictures, books of a religious and moral tone, toys, warm clothing, and other such things among the brethren and sisters, and others to whom the several Branch Societies may think well to extend the loving hand of sympathy, that is, to Brickyard, Canal, Gipsy, Van, and other Children.

4. As an outward sign of the kindly feelings entertained towards each other, brothers and sisters are expected to extend the left hand to each other as often as is convenient to interchange the

usual "shake," which may be taken as the "sign" of having "entered" into relations of mutual love and sympathy.

5. Each brother and sister is expected to contribute monthly, or after such intervals as the Branch Societies shall think desirable, as much as each brother's or sister's means will allow, the offerings thus received to be used for the benefit of the receiving brothers and sisters, and others in need, and for the objects generally of the society.

6. Each Branch Society to form its own rules and regulations, in conformity with the objects of the society, for the guidance of the brethren and sisters, but before such rules and regulations can be put into practice, they must be signed by GEORGE SMITH of COALVILLE; and each Branch Society is expected to contribute a sum annually, on the 23d day of April in each year, towards the expenses of the Chief's Staff and Management.

7. Cards of fellowship and information relating to the establishment of Branches to be obtained only from the secretary at the head office, The Cabin, Crick, Rugby, to whom all communications must be addressed.

Given at The Cabin, the Epiphany of 1886.

GEORGE SMITH OF COALVILLE.

We shall be glad to send his Circular Letter to any person interested in it.

NEW BOOKS.

MEMORIAL OF SARAH PUGH. A tribute of respect from her cousins. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

NEW ZEALAND. EDUCATION, NATIVE SCHOOLS. Presented to both houses of the General Assembly, by James H. Pope, Organizing Inspector. Wellington: G. Didsbury.

ALFRED KELLEY. HIS LIFE AND WORK. James L. Bates. Columbus, Ohio. Privately printed.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION. Sir Philip Magnus. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.

VERMONT ASYLUM FOR THE INSANE. Its annals for fifty years. Joseph Draper, M. D., Brattleboro.

BRIDEWELL ROYAL HOSPITAL: past and present. A shrot

account of it as palace, hospital, prison and school, with memoranda hitherto unpublished. Alfred James Copeland. London: W. Gardner, Darton & Co.

EATING FOR STRENGTH: OR, FOOD AND DIET IN THEIR RELATION TO HEALTH AND WORK. M. L. Holbrook, M. D. New York; M. L. Holbrook & Co.

DARLING ANNIE. MESSAGES TO THE KING'S DAUGHTERS, OR, THE MANNERS OF THE COURT. New York: Anson D. F. Randolph. This is a charming little book, which will make an excellent club manual or present to a new member.

PAGET, FRANCIS. THE HALLOWING OF WORK. Addresses given at Eton College, New York: L. P. Dutton. 75 cents.

SAY LEON. Turgot. (Translation by M. B. Anderson.) Chicago: McClurg & Co.; \$1.00. [Torgot is to be remembered as the author from whom Adam Smith formed his best impressions.]

WORMLEY KATHERINE PRESCOTT. The other side of war. Letters from the U. S. Sanitary Commission in 1862. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

THE proceedings of the Convention of Christian Workers, of which we spoke in our last number, will be published shortly, from stenographic notes, by the secretary of the committee. The two volumes already published have the very first value for people practically engaged in Christian work, especially in large cities. Persons who wish the report should address A. S. Robins, New Haven, Conn., remitting seventy-five cents for each copy required.

WHEELER, CHARLES H. A Memorial of Rev. Chas. H. Wheeler. The sudden calamity which brought Mr. Wheeler's earthly life to a sudden end awakened a general interest in every memory of a career so pure and noble as his. His parishioners have prepared a memorial pamphlet, only too short, which contains a little sketch of the outward events of his life, and some of the tributes to his memory which were pronounced by his friends after his death. We cannot but hope that before long we shall have some larger volume, which shall present for us a record of the work which he has done so well for the parish and for the town.

MASSACHUSETTS SOCIETY FOR PROMOTING GOOD CITIZENSHIP.

OFFICE, 3 HAMILTON PLACE, BOSTON MASS.

LOCAL CLUBS.

Non-resident members and others interested are strongly recommended to establish local clubs or branches of the parent society.

The papers and publications of the society will be issued in the pages of *LEND A HAND*, and obtainable by all clubs at the very moderate subscription price of that journal. Clubs are also offered the opportunity to obtain at reduced prices the following journals:

The Forum, Harvard Quarterly Journal of Economics, Magazine of American History, Publications of Massachusetts Statistical Society and American Economic Association, The Old South Series, Political Studies of Johns Hopkins University, Public Opinion, Political Science Quarterly, Civil Service Record, International Record of Charities and Corrections, Bradstreet's. All these are valuable aids in the study of the problem of American citizenship, and are sufficient to keep a club abreast with the progress of modern thought in that direction.

The Executive Committee of the society, feeling the need of issuing more publications than their hitherto limited means have permitted, have adopted the arrangement with *LEND A HAND* as offering the best method of attaining this end and aiding the members in carrying out the work of promoting good citizenship. It is hoped that a liberal subscription to this journal which is now their organ will reimburse its proprietors for the undertaking and induce them to continue it.

The Executive Committee will, as heretofore, cheerfully give information respecting the society, and will do all in their power to aid local clubs in their work. At the office, room 92, No. 3 Hamilton Place, Boston, circulars and information can be procured. The secretary will be in attendance there upon the afternoons of Monday, Wednesday and Friday in each week from 2 to 4. Letters addressed to him at the office—or to Box 1252, Boston—will meet with prompt attention.

For either or all of these publications send to the Publishers of *LEND A HAND* Monthly, 3 Hamilton Place, Boston, Mass.

THE MASSACHUSETTS SOCIETY FOR PROMOTING GOOD CITIZENSHIP.

TO MEMBERS AND FRIENDS:—

The question is often asked, "What is the object of the Society for Promoting Good Citizenship, and what are its members expected to do?"

1. They are expected, in the first place, to encourage and assist everything which tends to make men good and intelligent. The good citizen is, before all else, the good man. The study, teaching and application of the principles of a broad morality lie at the very base of efforts for good citizenship. As De Tocqueville saw it to be in his time, so we see it to be in ours, the success of a republican democratic government depends upon the general moral and intellectual character of the community. We need intelligence, education, conscience and health; and whoever is working wisely to promote these, whether as a member of this Society or in his own particular vocation, is working for what makes the foundation of good citizenship.

2. The immediate and special inquiry as to the nature of good citizenship leads to the study of political history and political philosophy. We wish to see more serious and thorough study of what the world's great thinkers in the past have thought and said upon government and the state. We wish to encourage a more careful study of our own American history and institutions, our constitutions and laws, and this in comparison with those of other countries.

Members of this Society, individually or in association with each other, in simple local organizations, in clubs or classes, are urged to these studies in a more systematic and comprehensive manner for themselves, and to prompt, direct and assist such studies on the part of others. Let them study the town and the town meeting; let them study the city, the commonwealth, the nation and international relations. It is by such broad studies of history and of politics that a true civic spirit is chiefly sustained. They are therefore the primary duties of the American citizen, and especially of those who, interested in this movement, desire to promote a more intelligent patriotism and a better public opinion.

3. It is the duty of the good citizen, and especially of those who undertake the work of promoting good citizenship, to give earnest attention to the political and social questions of the day: such questions as—at the present time—protection or free trade, prohibition or license, the relations of capital and labor, the limits of state control of industries, compulsory education, the school board, the caucus, the tenement house, sanitation and charities, immigration and international arbitration.

It is the good citizen's duty to dispel ignorance and to spread knowledge of facts on these subjects and to foster a large and worthy spirit in dealing with them. It is his office to make knowledge powerful and controlling by attending faithfully to his own duties as a voter, beginning with the primary meeting, and by inciting every citizen within the circle of his influence to the same faithfulness.

The organized work of the Society must be very largely confined to affording its members requisite aids for their individual efforts. Upon earnest individual effort the success of the work must ultimately depend. The larger the membership, the wider will be the Society's field of operation; and members are urgently requested to induce their friends to join, as well as to give careful attention to the matter of local organization.

Copies of the Constitution and By-laws, and any needed information, may be obtained by addressing the Secretary of the Society, Dr. C. F. reChore, 87 Milk Street, Boston. (P. O. Box 1252.)

PUBLISHERS' DEPARTMENT.

LEND A HAND MONTHLY,

A Record of Progress and Journal of Good Citizenship.

EDWARD E. HALE, D. D. Editor.

JOHN STILMAN SMITH Manager.

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It goes without saying that the editorial part of this periodical, by Dr. Edward Everett Hale, is most ably and satisfactorily conducted. We know of no other magazine like it.—*Field and Stockman.*

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Massachusetts Society for Promoting Good Citizenship.

LECTURES

UPON

Municipal Government and Reform.

AN ABSTRACT OF LECTURES] DELIVERED
AT THE OLD SOUTH MEETING HOUSE
IN BOSTON, DURING THE
WINTER OF 1889.

BOSTON:
PUBLISHED BY THE SOCIETY.
1889.

MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT AND REFORM.

BY CHARLES F. CREHORE.

THE Massachusetts Society for Promoting Good Citizenship has for one of its objects the promotion of intelligent discussion of the problem of government, the machinery by which the quality of good citizenship is to exert its most powerful influence upon the community. When, recently, the liberality of a friend provided the necessary means, its executive committee proposed giving a course of lectures, free to the public, upon the subjects of Municipal Government and Reform. While in sparsely settled towns and rural districts the application of republican principles in local government is comparatively easy and the conditions to be encountered are simple, in large municipalities the problem becomes much more complicated and difficult of solution.

It may be broadly stated that the common welfare demands the restriction of individual freedom of action in direct proportion to the density of the population. Only an authority little less than despotic will ensure the welfare of men packed as closely as we find them in an army or a man-of-war. And as our greater cities are more rapidly increasing in population than the country at large, the study of the best methods of caring for their welfare seems particularly incumbent upon those who desire to promote good citizenship.

The course, as arranged by the chairman of the committee, was intended to furnish a comparative view of our own with two foreign cities, give information upon special points (e. g. the new ballot act, the school committee, etc.), to show what a pre-eminently public-spirited, wise and honest man did for the city when its chief magistrate, and to point out what, by the proper use of recently devised scientific methods of government, it might be in the future.

The course, as finally arranged, was as follows; and it should

be mentioned that the gentlemen have given their time and labor to the preparation and delivery of the lectures :

- January 7. "The Trustworthy Citizen" . . . REV. CHARLES F. DOLE.
 " 14. "The Rise of American Cities" . . . PROF. ALBERT B. HART.
 " 21. "Birmingham: A Study of City Government in England,"
 REV. JOHN CUCKSON.
 " 28. "Berlin: A Study of City Government in Germany,"
 SYLVESTER BAXTER.
 February 4. "The New Ballot System" . . . RICHARD H. DANA.
 " 11. "The True School Board" . . . WM. A. MOWRY.
 " 18. "The Government of Boston" . . . HENRY H. SPRAGUE.
 " 25. "Josiah Quincy, the Great Mayor,"
 HON. MELLE CHAMBERLAIN.
 March 4. "The Possible Boston" . . . REV. EDWARD E. HALE.

It is proposed in this article to give a general resume of these lectures.

I. — "THE TRUSTWORTHY CITIZEN," *by Rev. C. F. Dole.* —

This lecture was admirably adapted to be introductory to a course upon Municipal Government, its central idea being to emphasize the fact that to properly exercise the right of citizenship a man must be good, true, conscientious, fair-minded, honest. It pointed out the danger that would result from a man's being governed in his actions by the dictum of his party or his "set," rather than by his inner conscientious convictions. One man will do right as far as the average of the others about him, another will follow prevalent opinion even if he personally disapproves it or knows it to be wrong. The *good* citizen is governed by his conscience, that meets, or strives to meet, the standard of right — the utmost right he can see. History, both past and present, sustains this view. The lecturer pointed out how a few good citizens gave tone and served as a standard to the rest. If such were not forthcoming, leaders for liberty and reform would be lacking; and France of today was cited in illustration. Public men, of the average standard, with few or no trustworthy men to set a higher one, gradually drop to a lower, and vulgarize the nation. There can be no complete individual political independence, for a standard must necessarily be sought from the outside. It must rest upon *reality*. Independent conduct is ideal conduct governed by conviction in the light of external standards, like a ship that steers by the pole star or the compass. The truly independent citizen says: "I will do what I ought, what God bids me."

There goes with this spirit a tolerance of a different opinion in others — a magnanimous spirit. He who seeks the highest good of the state can afford to be patient and magnanimous; is compelled to be fair. The man who is conscience-pledged to do whatever is right can afford, and he alone can be relied upon to have, this magnanimous spirit, tolerant, patient, conciliatory, friendly.

Mr. Dole closed with saying that the possession of these characteristics was the true test of the trustworthy citizen; that such qualities furnished the stuff out of which true patriots were made; that if generally possessed by the community, they would insure the future weal of the state, and urged that especially those entrusted with the duties of government should be endowed with them.

II. — "THE RISE OF AMERICAN CITIES," *by Prof. A. B. Hart.* — Dr. Hart commenced by pointing out the great influence which topographical features had in determining the location of sites for cities. In earlier times the suitability for defence was a prominent requirement, and the spot which best satisfied this condition was selected. Facility of access was another requirement, and as trade developed and civilization rendered defensive capability of secondary importance to freedom of commercial intercourse, the topographical features most favoring the latter were selected. In our early history both conditions were met in the main by locations upon the sea coast. As settlements extended inland, and defensive capability was less and less demanded, the topographical features needed were almost entirely those which favored commercial intercourse or manufacturing enterprise. Points like Chicago, which offered a fair natural harbor at the foot of a lake, around which all land transportation to the East must pass, or with available water-power like Lowell, were sure to become the site of extensive settlement. Artificial channels for commerce, canals and railroads, become secondary topographical features, promoting the growth and prosperity of the country through which they pass and the points to which they lead. These are frequently both the result of the previous location of a city and the cause of its increased rate of growth.

This mutually reacting influence between the accumulated wealth of a city, which enables it to establish artificial channels of

communication, and the prosperity they bring to it in return, tend to concentrate municipal growth into a few large cities.

Moral and intellectual development, affording facilities for higher cultivation, are important factors in municipal growth. The lecturer attributed the prominence of Boston in a large degree to this cause. The general diffusion of education and intelligence in a city tends to orderly and economical government, with superior educational facilities, and is likely to attract to itself a class of new residents with like proclivities.

An interesting comparison of the size of American cities, their comparative growth and the character of their populations was fully illustrated by charts with curves and colored areas. The relative growth of rural and urban populations was shown, and the fact that the latter were gaining in rate of growth made evident. Until 1820 Philadelphia was the largest city in the Union. Ten years later the Erie canal, the product of New York enterprise and capital, came to the aid of that city, and the population increased from 103,000 in 1825 to 268,000 in 1830, placing her where she has since remained, at the head of American cities. Today she has probably a population of 1,600,000; Philadelphia has 1,000,000; Brooklyn, a phenomenon, has 782,000. Baltimore and Boston are now close rivals, the former leading by a few thousand. New York has the densest settlement, 16 to a house. Brooklyn and Cincinnati come next, with 9 persons to each dwelling; Chicago, Boston and St. Louis have 8; Baltimore and San Francisco each 6; while Philadelphia and New Orleans have only 5. The relative proportion of native and foreign populations was shown graphically upon diagrams. The latter in the smaller cities attain 27 per cent. and in the largest 32 per cent. of the whole.

The third and fourth lectures in the course were devoted to the consideration of the municipal governments in Birmingham and Berlin. While differing materially in details, there are some points in common that it will be instructive to note before giving an abstract of each separately. It will be noticed that in both the honor and dignity of the city official positions is carefully maintained. Men of the highest probity and of superior social position are proud to

accept them. It is an endorsement of character and social standing to be offered municipal office. It will be further noticed that, in both, the great body of electors feel a pride in having their city well governed, and accept the responsibility of suffrage with a serious sense of its importance. Again, it will be observed that in each the municipal authority is extended over a much wider field than is customary with us. Public conveyances, street lighting, water and gas supply, the relief of the poor, the care of the sick, are much more under city control. Moreover, the character of the officials leads to such economical management of the departments that they are directly profitable to the municipality, and the surplus thus obtained is available for current expenses and serves to lighten the amount to be raised by taxation. Commodities like water and gas, which are general necessities, and which can only be furnished by a rich and powerful corporation, are very proper ones for municipal supply, especially when it is considered that their furnishing involves the use of the public thoroughfares; and it is certainly questionable whether it is not logical to extend the application of the principle to the ownership of street railways and other modes of public conveyance. Public highways certainly belong to the public, and no portion of the public should have the right to use them to the exclusion of the rest. Street railways are, in this respect, different from railways built upon land which they have purchased and hold in fee.

Again, it will be noticed that the supervision of all municipal affairs in these cities is excessively minute and particular. Numerous officials, paid and unpaid, in successive grades, are required to attend to the numberless details, and each grade is under the control and direct supervision of that immediately above it. Subdivision of inspection and control, with direct responsibility to an immediate superior, who, in turn, is responsible to one just above him, is the key-note of the success which has attended the methods of government in these cities.

To restate it in brief, we have:—

1st. In the citizens a general and earnest desire for, and an interest and pride in, having a good government.

2d. Competent, honest officials, who are proud of the positions they occupy.

3d. An elaborate and carefully planned system of official supervision and care.

4th. Municipal ownership or direct control of all public services which necessitate the use of municipal property.

III. — "BIRMINGHAM," by *Rev. John Cuckson*. — The lecturer first spoke of the varying requirements, as new conditions (such as increased territory, increased or changed character of population, etc.,) might demand. The best government was that which gradually grew up and developed to meet these conditions. While every city had its peculiar requirements, there were certain fundamental principles, the observance of which was indispensable to every good government, and these it would repay us to consider.

He then explained the mode in which city charters were obtained in England, through the privy council by direct grant of the Crown. All qualified to take part in the election of the city council are termed burgesses, and include all who have duly paid rates for twelve months, and lodgers who are qualified for the franchise. Women householders may vote for city councillors, school board and poor law guardians, but not for members of Parliament.

The new borough is divided by charter into wards, each represented by a fixed number of councillors, who are elected by the electors of the ward for three years. One-third retire every year. A board of aldermen is elected by the councillors from their own number, or at large, to serve for six years. It is one-third of the council in numbers. These two bodies elect the mayor, who holds office one year.

None of these are salaried, and are prohibited from having any pecuniary interest in contracts or purchases made for the city.

The council subdivides its work by means of permanent committees, who render reports of their doings to the whole body at its stated meetings, which must be held at least once in a quarter. The minutes after signature by the mayor are open for inspection to any burgess.

All the usual city officials are chosen by the council. The borough surveyor is a very important one, having charge of the

streets, lighting, sewerage, public offices, and the approval of building plans. All finances are subject to government inspection and are under statutory restrictions.

Mr. Cuckson dwelt upon the high standard of qualification demanded from municipal officers, and stated that the positions were coveted by the best class of citizens, who felt it an honor to be called upon to fill them.

He stated that the electors realized the importance of making careful and judicious selection of men for office, and never failed to take a warm interest in their own duties as citizens.

He then related how this admirable state of things was brought about some twenty years ago by a movement of the sons of the prominent citizens, headed by Joseph Chamberlain. Previous to that date the condition of municipal affairs had been very bad — so bad that at length it brought about the reform movement alluded to.

As the control passed into the hands of these public-spirited men, city life assumed a dignity hitherto unknown. Large and liberal measures were elaborated. The supplies of gas and water were assumed by the city. An improvement act was obtained which, at a very great cost, enabled the city to acquire control of a central district, occupied by tumble-down rookeries, which was a standing menace to its sanitary condition and social peace. The tramways are owned by the municipality, who lease them to companies under rigid conditions for public convenience.

A public museum and art gallery has been constructed at great cost, adjoining the council-house, and is open to all daily.

Public baths and public laundries, where for a trifle anyone can have the opportunity of washing and drying his garments, are other features of the city.

Four parks, comprising a total area of 140 acres, furnish ventilation to the town, and pleasure grounds to its inhabitants. The schools appear to be in a very satisfactory condition.

These excellent results seem to have been in great measure attained through the efforts of an association of the better class of citizens, who constantly strive to arouse and keep bright the patriotism and local pride of the people, and to foster a desire for and an appreciation of good government.

This association seems to charge itself with the investigation of

the character and the record of political aspirants. In brief they apply the principle of organization to secure good government as it is applied in other places to serve the interests of party — too often of party leaders. The lecturer pointed out that here in America our political zeal depended too much upon crises. At critical periods and in great emergencies our electors can be depended upon to rise to the occasion and do their duty. But he implied that our better citizens do not keep up that constant organization and supervision of political affairs which is requisite to ensure continuous good government.

His concluding words were, "Pitch your ideals of government so high, and make the service of your country so exalted, so free from vulgar ambition and self-interest, that none but capable men will seek your suffrages, and none but patriotic men will receive and maintain your confidence."

IV. — "BERLIN, THE MODEL CITY," by *Sylvester Baxter*. — Mr. Baxter quoted Prof. R. S. Ely's opinion "that Berlin was the best governed city in the world." Before describing it in detail he gave an account of the rise of the German cities from the middle ages. He then narrated the method of election of the city government. The manhood suffrage system, which is universal in state affairs throughout the empire, is somewhat restricted in the municipal elections. Here there is required a year's residence, the attainment of the age of twenty-four years and the payment of a "class tax" upon a minimum income of about \$150. In this way the number of electors qualified to vote for municipal officers is smaller by about 13 per cent. than the number of those qualified to vote in state elections. This evidently eliminates the floating and the non-wage-earning population.

Patriotic spirit and pride in having a well ordered city are fostered by the share accorded to the citizens in its administration. Some 10,000 citizens, in one or another capacity, have a part in the conduct of affairs; that is, one in every one hundred and fifty inhabitants, and more than one in twenty of the number who voted at a recent election. This intimate connection of the citizens with the

government is not confined to any particular class. Well-known scientists like Drs. Virchow and Gneist, men high in political and social status, are found in the ranks of its officials. Indeed, no citizen who is called to the service of the city can escape, except at the cost of a fine and a heavy increase of his taxation.

The basis of the government is the municipal assembly of 126 members, who represent the 326 wards. One-half at least of these must be householders. They are elected for periods of six years, one-third retiring every two years. This representative assembly has the entire financial control of affairs, but is possessed of no executive function. It chooses an upper branch of the government, known as "The Magistracy," which is composed of a mayor and thirty-two aldermen. Fifteen of the latter are salaried — seventeen honorary, without compensation. The mayor is chosen for *twelve* years, subject to approval of the King, and is eligible for re-election. His salary is about \$7500. He is not necessarily, at election, a resident of the city. In fact it is customary to seek among the mayors or officials of other cities a candidate who has shown himself possessed of the requisite qualifications in minor fields. His position is a highly honorable one and his authority in city business almost absolute. Mr. Baxter referred to a recently elected mayor who declined to accept the position unless certain state laws were repealed, and the government was prevailed upon to accede to this condition. The fifteen salaried aldermen are chosen for twelve years, by the assembly, with special reference to the departments over which they are to preside. They receive salaries higher than those of the local judges and their positions are such as to attract the best material in the city. Like the mayor, they are eligible to re-election, or, if they prefer, can retire upon pensions. They comprise a deputy mayor, two legal advisers, the city treasurer and two school counsellors. The remaining seven have no titles and are assigned to the care of the various departments. The seventeen unpaid aldermen are chosen for terms of six years, generally from the highest class of citizens. Their duties are the same as those of the paid aldermen, and, like them, they are eligible to re-election, which is generally accorded to them.

The two chambers already described are supplemented by a

body of seventy citizen deputies, also selected by the assembly from distinguished citizens, who serve in general committees for the administration of special affairs, such as poor relief, administration of schools, etc. An alderman is chairman of these committees and other aldermen may be members with those from the assembly and from the deputies. Under this executive staff of 230 members there is a large staff of paid officials, appointed for life; with long service increase of pay.

In the election of the assembly the voters are divided in three classes, each of which elects one-third of the members. The first class comprises those heaviest tax-payers who pay one-third of the tax levy. At a recent election these numbered about 3000. The second class, the next heaviest tax-payers who paid a third; this class numbered about 16,000. The third class, the small tax-payers, who numbered about 166,000. Thus the majority of the assembly is chosen by a minority of the voters.

The police, numbering about 3000, are administered by the state but paid by the city, at a cost of some \$400,000.

The taxes are levied upon incomes, above a certain limit, and upon real estate and rentals.

Two hundred and twenty-three local commissions, numbering in all 1600 persons, have charge of the poor relief. An alderman presides or is *ex officio* a member of each commission. The number of members varies from 4 to 12. Only vagabonds and altogether unworthy persons are sent to the work-house. The amount expended in 1881-82 was over \$1,100,000. Mr. Baxter stated the excellent results obtained and drew a very favorable picture of the superiority of Berlin to London in this regard.

The fire brigade numbers 750 men in a high state of efficiency, costing annually some \$370,000.

The street cleaning is very thorough, and always done at night.

The street railway paves a portion of the streets and pays a portion of its receipts to the city, amounting to about \$250,000 annually. In 1911 the city takes possession of the entire plant.

The municipal gas works yield a profit equalling 18 per cent. of the city's entire annual expenditure. The water works also pay some \$220,000; and even the sewerage department yields a net

revenue of about the same amount. Of course this is derived from the rates assessed upon owners who are benefited by it.

The school system was described at length. It is supervised by 87 local committees with 1300 members, under the direction of a school board composed of members of the city government, the superintendents of the church dioceses and the dean of the Catholic churches.

Besides 118 large common schools (in 1881), with 2862 teachers, of all grades and both sexes, there are ten gymnasias, corresponding to our Latin schools, seven realschulen, corresponding to our high schools, two industrial schools, four high schools for girls, six state schools of different grades, etc., etc. Athletic instruction is carefully provided for in each school. Some ninety private schools are under the supervision of the public school authorities, and have to conform to the public standard.

With all its many excellences in details of government, the city has only the very moderate debt of \$4,000,000—a striking contrast to New York, with its debt of over \$100,000,000.

The city has founded a number of institutions of credit based upon its wealth. A municipal savings bank, with \$12,500,000 deposits and 39 offices in various parts of the city, pays 3 1-8 per cent. interest. There is a municipal fire insurance office, in which all householders are compelled to insure at a rate of 5 or 6 cents on \$100. Another city institution is a mortgage bank, issuing loans at from 4 to 5 per cent.

Prof. Gneist was quoted by Mr. Baxter as saying that the municipal methods had the effect of abating party animosity, in a common desire to promote the interests of the city and the welfare of the people. He closed by contrasting our institutions with those of Berlin, and unsparingly criticized our methods of conducting municipal affairs.

V. — "THE NEW BALLOT SYSTEM," by *R. H. Dana*. — Mr. Dana began by saying that his subject was one which did not lend it self to oratorical display, but which, though in great part a statement of details, really went deep down to the foundations of our institutions.

Many may have wondered why the Roman Republic came to an end. It was owing to wide-spread corruption among the people. And in our own dear land we might reach a point where the better people would welcome a dictatorship that would put an end to a debased republicanism. If this were ever to come about, it would be through the corruption of the individual voter.

It was a common remark that if voters were intelligent and upright we were sure to have good government. And if not, no system would help us. This was not so. There were three classes: the good, the corrupt, and between these a large class who would be good if helped to be so, but would become corrupt if outside influences preponderated in that direction. A system could and should be framed to assist men to practise integrity and not to facilitate corruption.

Our old laws in Massachusetts (previous to the new act) which provided that voting should be by ballot, prescribed the size and general character of the ballot, but stopped there. They left the printing and distribution of ballots to any one who chose to undertake the work.

There were close upon 700 polling places in the state, and a single set of nominations required about one and a quarter million ballots. Each of the two great parties printed about this number, at a cost of from \$2,000 to \$3,000, for a state election, and the other smaller parties had to provide enough for all possible exigencies. The fact that ballots bore different candidates for local offices (county and district) in different parts of the state required as many as from 160 to 200 different ballots, and still further complicated the system.

This printing and distribution required a great deal of labor, which was undertaken by the different party organizations through their committees (the "party workers"), and these were apt to be men who pursued politics as a personal aim. These men thus got control of the party machinery, and the able leaders found themselves dependent on them. The mere misspelling of a name upon a portion of the ballots might turn an election against the choice of the people. If the name at the head of a ticket was right, few voters scrutinized closely the following ones; and very unworthy persons

were elected unwittingly to minor offices. Moreover, the want of secrecy rendered the voter liable to intimidation or open to attempts at bribery.

In the new system now to be in legal force, after Nov. 1st, 1889, two reforms have been inaugurated. First, the state prints all the ballots at the public cost. Second, absolute secrecy is insured. One ballot contains all the nominations to each office, and the voter indicates his selection by making a mark (cross) against the one he wishes to vote for.

Nominations are made in two ways: First, by caucus of any party that cast at least three per cent. of the vote at the previous election, or, second, by a number of individual voters equalling one per cent. of the voters of a district. The number, however, must be at least fifty, and need not in any case exceed one thousand.

Moreover, the ballot is provided with a blank space for each officer voted for, in which the individual voter can, if he wish, write the name of any person whom he prefers to the printed nominees. The order of the printed candidates is alphabetical, and the political party which nominated each is indicated.

Nominations for state elections must be handed in to the secretary of state at least fourteen days before the election; for a city election, ten days, and for other elections, seven days.

Mr. Dana expressed regret that it has of late become the custom to *elect* instead of *appointing* a large class of officers—registers of deeds and probate, county clerks, and the like, whose functions are in no wise affected by their political affiliations, and thereby increasing the complication of ballot voting unnecessarily.

The ballots, being prepared under the direction of the secretary of state and authenticated by a fac-simile imprint of his signature upon the outside (they are folded lengthwise, so that the printed nominations are not visible until unfolded), are distributed at the proper time, through city and town clerks, to the various polling places.

Besides having them open to inspection in his office, he is required to publish in each county a complete list of all the nominations, and specimen ballots are required to be posted in all polling places four days before the election. When it is remembered that

the daily press will probably reprint the list, it will be seen that every voter will have ample time to select his candidate for each office.

The voter upon going to the polls enters first an outer room, where he can refresh his memory from the specimen ballot posted for that purpose, and then presents himself at an inner one where he encounters the registrar with the list of voters. His name being checked, he is admitted and a ballot handed to him. With this he retires to a stall, provided with a desk, so arranged that he cannot be overlooked, and with a pencil placed there marks his ballot. He then folds it anew and at once deposits it in the ballot box. He is forbidden, under a heavy penalty, from showing it to any one after it is marked. Ten minutes are allowed him for the task, but two or three are ample.

Mr. Dana, with the aid of one or two of the audience, gave, by means of model stalls, etc., a practical illustration of the working of the system.

He then referred to objections that had been made to it and quoted the experience gained by its adoption in Australia, England, and Louisville, Kentucky, in refutation. The testimony in every case was highly favorable to its efficiency, and the small number of errors made in practice were probably much less than those occurring under the system which it has supplanted. He stated that he did not believe that it would operate much change in party organization or the caucus system. Neither could it be relied upon to check all corrupt practices, and it may be necessary to supplement it by a corrupt practice act, as in England.

But if fairly carried out, especially in its provision for secrecy, it will prevent the purchase of votes, for no one will pay for a vote where he has to trust the honor of the seller to cast it.

He then spoke earnestly of the need of something to check the tendency to corruption which is showing itself in the community. The remedy should be applied in time. In Rome all the severe laws against corruption were passed just too late. They enacted one measure very similar to the one which had been discussed that evening. But her people had become too completely debauched.

We might think today that we were very far from being as bad as she was. But we must take warning from her and not wait until

we had arrived at a state where remedial measures were hopeless.

We stood upon a levee separating the country from a mighty river. A little water, that a child with its spade might stop, trickled over the surface. But if not stopped while small, it soon ate out a channel and poured in an overwhelming, irresistible flood over the land. If we neglected to stop the small beginnings of corrupt practices, all our preventive enactments might prove to have been made too late.

VI. — "THE TRUE SCHOOL BOARD," *by W. A. Mowry.* — Dr. Mowry introduced his subject by saying that "the most distinctively American institution which the country has produced" is its system of Public Schools. He said that it originated in the Massachusetts Colony, and alluded to the great development of this humble beginning.

He stated that "the fundamental principle of the common school is that the property of the state should be taxed to educate the children of the state. It assumes that the state has a right to the children; not all rights, but a right. This principle does not and should not interfere with the right of the church nor with the rights of the parent, neither should it assume to dictate and control all matters of education." After some remarks in illustration he continued: "Granting, however, all that can be properly claimed for the parents, for the church and for civil society as such, yet the important truth remains that by the public school, and by the public school only, the great mass of the children and youth in the country can be educated."

He then stated the grounds upon which taxation for the support of schools is defensible, the necessity for educated intelligence properly to fit citizens for the performance of their duties, and pointed out the fact that our very rapid progress in civilization has been attributed by foreign observers, from De Toqueville down, to our system of common schools. He said: "It will be clearly apparent from the foregoing that, in the nature of things, the schools must lie very close to the hearts of the people. The wisest management of them, therefore, must necessarily be the local management. The less machinery and the more direct the control, the more successful will the system

be." He pointed out that this condition exists especially in New England. The principle should not, however, be carried to illogical results. He discussed in comparison the larger state control in many of the newer states, and summed up as follows: "We must not, however, make the mistake of supposing that the taxation for schools should be wholly in the hands and at the option of the people of the townships. It is perfectly consistent with the best system, and promotive of the best results, to have a local or township tax, a state tax, special taxes, * * * all combined for the highest maintenance of this system of public instruction."

After this introduction he took up his special subject of the "School Board," and considered its functions, which in part are legislative, making provision "for the establishment, maintenance and uplifting of the schools."

One of the most important parts of this was the selection of teachers, which he said should be done by the Board itself, and not delegated to subsidiary authority. To secure harmony of action in the schools it is important that the wishes and opinion of the superintendent and superior teachers should be ascertained and regarded in the appointment of their subordinates. The framing of rules and regulations—the former to guide the proceedings of the Board, the latter to govern the teachers and other officials in the performance of their duties—was then discussed. The regulations should be conceived in a broad and liberal spirit—not hampering the teacher by arbitrary restrictions, but so designed as to aid him in his task. The details of school work should be left to the superintendent, and not included in the general regulations framed by the Board. He then considered the selection and ordering of courses of study—a very important function of the Board. This should be done in co-operation with the teachers and superintendent, and should be the result of their judgment and experience, approved by the Board, which should be held finally responsible for the decision.

The selection of text-books was next considered, and Dr. Mowry dwelt upon the perplexing difficulties which beset the conscientious performance of this duty. He deemed that Board deserving of commendation which by good luck failed to select the poorest offered.

He then spoke of the duties of the Board in its relation to

finance. This should include the fixing of salaries in the department, the erection of new and the repair and maintenance of the old school-houses. He dwelt upon the necessity of making the estimates for the annual requirements, on which to ask for appropriations, with the utmost care and particularity, specifying in full detail all of the items and making reasonable provision for probable increase of demands upon the department.

He advocated giving to the Board full discretion in the selection of sites and of the features of construction for new houses, within the limits fixed by the appropriation.

In speaking of the relations of the Board to the City Council, Dr. Mowry made an eloquent plea that the schools should not be grouped with streets, fire department, police, and others, as a mere branch of the municipal business. In view of their great importance to the community the schools were certainly entitled to an independent self-control.

Many thoughtful persons were in favor of entrusting the Board with the exercise of the right of eminent domain in the selection of locations for schools, the power to levy taxes, and the sole, undivided control of the school funds thus acquired.

Dr. Mowry doubted whether this were wisely applicable to all communities and concluded with these words: "Whatever system is adopted, one thing is certain, that here, as elsewhere, in all matters of popular government, the true principle and most successful will everywhere be found to be to place direct responsibility upon the officials and hold them responsible for results."

The supervision of the schools next claimed his attention. He favored placing it exclusively in the hands of the superintendent, who in turn should delegate authority to the head teachers; but reserving a right of final appeal to the Board. In his own words: "In the first place, all matters of detail and individualism are left with the teacher in charge of the class. The next step in the upward scale of duties is the direct oversight exercised by the principal of the particular school. Then comes the general supervision of the district by the master. Next in order the Board places the supervisors, with the superintendent at their head. Over and above all is the School Board, to make laws, rules and regulations, with legal power and complete control of the schools."

In speaking of the proper composition of the Board, Dr. Mowry cited the system pursued with excellent results in Denver, Col., and read a description thereof from a report by the late John D. Philbrick and from an article in *Education* for 1887 (Vol. VIII, p. 51). The salient point in that system is the entrusting very full powers to a board of six gentlemen, who serve three years—one-third being elected annually at an election held for that purpose only. This special election takes the schools out of politics, and as but two candidates are to be elected by the whole city, it is easy to secure and elect men of standing.

Dr. Mowry then referred to the various methods in force of electing or appointing school boards without according marked preference to any, but he advocated, if popular election was the method, having such held exclusively for that purpose, and also having the terms of service so arranged as to make the Board continuous.

He then spoke of the magnitude of the school interest in Boston with its sixty thousand pupils and annual expenditure of over one and one-half million dollars, and followed it with an eloquent setting forth of the enormous importance of education to a community like ours, whose progressive civilization, stimulating commercial activity and widely diverse applications of industrial art, demands unceasing intellectual effort from its members. He alluded to the heterogeneous character of our population as another reason for fostering our schools. He concluded his lecture with an outline of the qualifications which should belong to the members of a school board and a stirring appeal to the citizens of Boston to foster and develop to the utmost the efficiency of its public schools.

VII. — "THE GOVERNMENT OF BOSTON," by *Hon. Henry H. Sprague, State Senator*.—Although originally arranged in a different order, it seemed, when circumstances rendered a change necessary, highly appropriate that a course wherein the qualifications of citizenship had been discussed, municipal methods explained, and foreign and theoretical systems reviewed, should terminate with a specific account of our own municipality.

This the Hon. Henry H. Sprague gave in the lecture bearing the above title. He first, with patient and painstaking accuracy, rehearsed the details of the formation of the old town government, its changes during its growth, the story of its slow transition to a municipal form, and how from time to time it had been modified until it assumed its present character. It would require too much space to properly set forth this portion of his discourse, which in itself was a very thoroughly condensed historical statement.

Coming to the Boston of today he stated emphatically that, in his judgment, the existing government was better suited to the present requirements of the community than had been the case at any previous period.

He commended the principle of vesting in the mayor full executive power and responsibility, while he regarded the required confirmation of appointments by the Board of Aldermen as a salutary restriction. While the executive could be prevented from arbitrary or corrupt use of its powers by the Board, the general public sentiment might be relied upon to check undue exercise of this restrictive power in the latter.

He thought that the various administrative departments, established independently from time to time and modified as occasion had required, might be reorganized and simplified advantageously. The general powers of the mayor he deemed hardly sufficient to secure efficient co-ordinate action in the management of departments that interfered with each other, as the street, water, sewer, and analogous departments, and he suggested that their combination in a general board of public works might tend to promote efficiency and economy.

He then considered the policy of entrusting the supervision of municipal departments to officials who rendered such service gratuitously, and advocated, in all cases where the demand upon the official's time was considerable, the payment of a moderate compensation, not large enough to attract candidates for the sake of the salary, but sufficient to enable men of ability but limited pecuniary means to take such positions.

He referred to the great benefit which had accrued to the city in many cases from unpaid service, and said that, especially in the departments dealing with large questions of philanthropy, it might

be advisable to continue to accept it ; but that in all such cases the requirements of the departments should be narrowed to admit of their being conducted without undue sacrifice of the time required by the officials for their private affairs.

Mr. Sprague then considered, unfavorably, the demand so frequently made for a single City Council. When its duties were to some extent executive there was reason to expect greater efficiency in a single body. But now that its duties are merely deliberative, it seemed unwise to entrust the making of the city's laws, the annual appropriation of twelve million dollars of public money, the general regulation of a corporation having seven hundred and fifty millions of capital, to a single body where an individual vote might decide its course of action.

He deemed the consideration of important measures by a separate body, and from a somewhat different standpoint, as essential to secure wise and careful legislation. The two branches acted as a check upon each other, and often in cases where popular indifference would have paid little attention to the passage of a bad law, a second branch of the Council has been the means of preventing its passing.

He favored the return to the practice of electing aldermen at large upon a single ticket, rather than election by districts, letting them represent the entire city, while the Council represented the various local interests of sections.

He then expressed himself as having no confidence in any attempt to remedy municipal evils by establishing a property qualification in electors. He made the point that it could be shown that the working poor and middle classes had performed the important duty of voting more constantly than the wealthy property holders. He also stated that the greatest schemes of municipal extravagance had ever been pressed most strongly by the latter.

Pointing out that municipal corruption went hand in hand with improper use of money by those who have it upon those without it, Mr. Sprague asked if it was not more in keeping to disqualify the corruptor before we punish his victims. He forcibly stated the fact that the poor, more than the rich, are interested in the maintenance of good municipal government. Stating the dangers from the dis-

content engendered by labor and socialist agitators, he maintained that the true qualifications of the elector were honesty, intelligence and public spirit, and not wealth.

While its details might require modification he believed the general principles of our municipal government adequate for existing needs. It was necessary to acquaint the people more fully with its provisions and to bring to public knowledge the doings of all officials. The qualification for public office should be ascertained fitness and capacity for its duties. Giving to paid officials the conduct of the business in its detail, we should demand in the City Council men of acknowledged ability, experience, and integrity, to whom to entrust the important general questions pertaining to municipal welfare.

Mr. Sprague urged that by these methods we should so well govern ourselves as not to require constant interference by the state, and concluded with an earnest appeal to the citizens to elect to the office of mayor men of executive ability, large experience and strict integrity, exacting from them the responsibility and accountability required by the charter "for the honest, efficient and economical conduct of the entire executive and administrative business of the city, and the harmonious and concerted action of the different departments."